INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK: A SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS OF ACCREDITED CSWE INSTITUTIONS IN MID-WESTERN USA

DISSERTATION

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By

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Abstract

The importance of International social work education these days cannot be overstated as social work has been established in nearly every part of the world. Also, globalization has been pivotal as it has facilitated the movement of people, improved technology and other social problems as well. American higher education is challenged to expand and keep in line with developmental trends in the global arena. Thus the social work profession has been affected by global changes and therefore social work education needs to prepare students to meet these demands both within their locales and internationally. Being that social work educators train students by imparting knowledge and professional practice, their responsibilities have increased especially with the introduction of the 2008 Educational Policy on Accreditation Standards (EPAS) by the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE). Consequently this study was done to explore how deans, professors or those that directly teach international social work prepare students at the master’s level.

This qualitative research method using grounded theory was sought to collect data through semi-structured interviews from 14 participants at accredited CSWE institutions in Mid-Western USA. All interviews were taped and subsequently transcribed. As a key component of grounded theory, constant comparisons of data were done during the analysis. Following the data analysis seven themes emerged: Definitions of International
Social Work, Funding, Collaboration, Study Abroad and International Field Placements, Textbooks for International Social Work, Tenure and Curriculum Development. The findings revealed variations by accredited CSWE institutions in the Mid-West as they design both the explicit and implicit curriculum outlined by CSWE in the 2008 EPAS. The findings have shown what institutions do in preparing students for international social work and the challenges they encounter. The participants in this study prepare students by infusing international social work topics in their courses, design international social work courses, take students on study abroad trips and facilitate international field placements especially as the Council On Social Work Education 2008 Educational Policy on Accreditation Standards (EPAS) has noted that field education is signature pedagogy of the profession. In the areas of the implicit curriculum participants in this study have created ideal educational environment for the students and diversity issues have been integrated into their missions and infused in some courses as well. The participants also offer students the necessary advisement, as they guide them through the specialization process as a whole. In terms of qualifications, all participants in this study with the exception of one have doctoral degrees and their expertise have been utilized by students as they train to be professional social workers. The participants in this study constitute a formidable manpower in teaching, research and, planning. In terms of challenges nearly all the participants expressed funding problems for international social work as it is at the lower rung of prioritized areas of concentration in the accredited institutions. Another challenge is the issue of tenure which somehow prevents some
faculty from branching off to a new area like international social work but some programs in this study offer professional development and credit to faculty who teach international social work.

The results of this study provide significant implications for social work education, policy and research for social work educators, field directors and curriculum developers at Council on Social Work Education. The results of this study identify gaps in social work education especially in the area of international field placements as programs and the data obtained in this study show that social work curricular at these accredited CSWE institutions vary considerably.
Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to

Nadia Isata Nyanda Lamin

and

Sylvester Amara Lamin Jr.
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To undertake this piece of academic journey was not easy. I want to thank God for taking me through. I would want to take this opportunity to extend my sincere and greatest gratitude to my advisor Dr. Mo Yee Lee for her guidance and interest in my work and words of encouragement when completing the dissertation seemed like a dream. I would like to thank the other committee members particularly Dr. Susan Saltzburg for instilling in me the research skills and Dr. Randi Love for her valuable comments on international social work issues and also Dr. Maria Julia who was on my committee before she retired from the university for her interest in my work and advisement she offered.

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**Publications**


FIELD OF STUDY

Major Field: Social Work
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CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides background to the study as it presents an important area of social work education: international social work in some accredited CSWE schools in Mid-Western USA. In advancing social work education students need to be taught considerable aspects of international social work or become knowledgeable about global issues but this does not seem to be the case in many Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) accredited institutions as their curricular vary extensively stemming mainly from the interest of a faculty and not based on any curriculum design mandated by CSWE or the global standards of social work established in 2001 by the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW).

International social work is the promotion of social work education and practice globally and locally, with the purpose of building a truly integrated international profession that reflects social work’s capacity to respond appropriately and effectively, in education and practice terms, to the various global challenges that are having a significant impact on the people (Dominelli, 2003; Edwards, 2011; Healy, 2001, 2008; Hugman, 2010; Midgley, 2001). Thus these global needs require social work to provide more areas in the curriculum (Edwards, 2011; Midgley, 2001). According to Khinduka (2004, p. 4) “the crux of the matter is that the key social
problems of the modern world cannot be analyzed intelligently or combated effectively without a transnational perspective.”

Nowadays the compositions of populations or clients many agencies serve in the United States have changed considerably as there are many immigrants living in communities within and exhibit varied cultural practices (Midgley, 2001). For instance a social worker working with an immigrant family from Sierra Leone may have to learn some of the cultural values and practices of that country so as to better serve the family.

In terms of ecological perspectives, Ecology is used as a metaphor in a bid to explain how “environments influence, shape and sometimes change each other” (Germain, 1991, p.16). In brief, the theory point out that human behavior is greatly influenced by “environmental reinforcement in a stimulus arc” (Germain, 1991, p.13).

Generally relationships between people and their environment can be linear, wherein a cause may predict an effect. Thus, grounded in the notion of transaction, the ecological perspective points to theoretical systems that yields a vital understanding of how humans function within their environment (Germain, 1991). Concepts like adaptedness and adaptation, stress and coping withholding of power, prejudicial discrimination and abuse of power, human relatedness, competence, self-direction and self-esteem, all have ecological derivations and are all viewed as transactional in nature. These terms explain the relationships people have with the environment (Germain, 1991; Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 2007). Besides, the environments in which people live “is so important in the analysis and understanding of human behavior” (Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 2007, p.11).
Ecosystems theory offers an understanding of the individual in relation to a natural support system of family, friend, neighbors and community (Ho, 1987, cited in Pinderhughes, 1994). On a whole, the self evolves through the unfolding of the internal processes as stimulated by the environment.

It is important to note that changes that occur in the interaction of the cultural group with the larger environment jeopardize the established norms, reciprocity and a host of other values of the people. Many male members especially husbands who were family heads in Sierra Leone are forced to take different values and roles in order to cope and keep their families intact. These shifts “threaten the balance that existed in role functioning, jeopardizing both family and individual functioning” (Pinderhughes, 1994, p. 275). Over the years there has been serious acculturation that threatens family structural composition by reversing the hierarchies and redesigning family roles. Because children acculturate faster especially from the school setting they move away not only from their patents (Schriver, 2001) but denounce their cultural values as primitive and even barbaric noting that it does not conform to the test of modern families. At home the children overuse and misuse facilities to the annoyance of their parents but hardly parents exert the kind of discipline they used to meet out to them when they were in Sierra Leone for fear of what may be termed as abuse. Prior to their arrival in the United States, many children lived in abject poverty and relied greatly on their parents for assistance and it is very common for children to stay with their parents even when they are in their late twenties and this is seen as normal behavior in the country where housing is in a precarious situation. Also teenagers and even adults share rooms and this does not raise any castigation or
disapproval by law enforcement or the society at large. Now in the United States, at age eighteen many children deem to have reached adulthood and hence continuously disrespect their parents.

In the developed world as a whole, the immigration patterns will get social workers into contact with immigrants as such “social workers can no longer afford to ignore international populations” (Asamoah, Healy & Mayadas, 1997, p. 11). Germain (1991) observed that “values and normative orientations must be understood on their own terms and not on the basis of an observer’s own value and norms” (p.28). Many people who intervene in family disturbances, rifts and alleged abuse tend to view their own way of doing things as the accepted norm and assume that everyone “holds or should hold, that view” (Germain, 1991, p.28). Indeed, the use of white middle-class model of helping has reinforced ignorance of cultural variation in people. Pinderhughes (1994) noted that the ignorance connotes people’s failure to access the impact a new environmental setting has on the life course and functioning of an individual.

The code of ethics of the National Association of Social Workers approved by the 1996 NASW Delegate Assembly and revised by the 1999 NASW Delegate Assembly; state that as part of the Ethical Standards, social workers have primordial ethical responsibilities to clients. The second section of the code of ethics “provides an overview of its main functions and a brief guide for dealing with ethical issues or dilemmas in social work practice” (Reamer, 1998, p. 9). According to Reamer (1998) the code identifies core values of the social work profession on which the profession’s mission is based and also “summarizes the ethical principles that reflect
the profession’s core values and establishes a set of specific ethical standards that should be used to guide the social work practice” (Reamer, 1998, p. 9). The code serves as tool or reference guide for good practice and it help to prevent unprofessionalism that may have be detrimental to the image of the profession before the codes were established. Amongst these is the issue of cultural competence and social diversity which outlines that “social workers should understand culture and its function in human behavior and society, and recognizing the strengths that exists in all cultures” (NASW, 1999). In addition, the code of ethics states that social workers should have a knowledge-base of their clients’ culture and be able to demonstrate competence in the provision of services that are sensitive to clients’ culture and to differences among people and cultural groups. The social worker needs to acquire the education that would be useful to the understanding of social diversity and oppression with respect to race, ethnicity, national origin, color, sex, sexual orientation, age, marital status, political belief, religion and mental or physical disability. Hartman (1994) observed that in a bid for social workers to become more skilled and more sensitive in their work with people of diverse backgrounds they need to “gather information about cultures” (p. 29), and also learn about differences and this will ultimately make them experts. Through interaction with people from different background social workers can learn tremendously from their clients and therein use the experience in similar setting when the need arises. From the above, one may be tempted to believe that multicultural issues encompasses international social work but international social work entails many aspect of people in the world in as a whole (Healy, 2012).
The importance of international social work cannot be overstated these days as times have changed especially with the advent of high speed Internet, technological innovations and the transformation of the world as a whole into a “Global village.” It is of primordial importance these days for social workers to be au fait with problems in their local communities and the international stage at large (Dominelli, 2003; Edwards, 2011; Hugman, 2010; Midgley, 2001). Generally speaking, world problems do not only happen outside one community or country but global problems can be met within one’s own community. For instance, with the demise of the Said Barrie regime in Somalia in 1991 many Somalis became refugees in neighboring countries or were resettled in many developed countries of the world. In the USA, Columbus, Ohio became the second resettlement base for many Somalis after the Twin Cities of Minneapolis and Saint Paul in Minnesota. At present there are more than 35,000 Somalis living in Columbus and its environs. In this vein, Healy (2008) states that “the social worker needs knowledge about life in Somalia, Somali family patterns, and the migration experience of Somali refugees including transit camps and their resettlement challenges” (p. 10). Obviously, with this, international social work becomes paramount. Remarkably, problems in one part of the world are problems for people in other parts of the world (Edwards, 2011; Healy, 2001, 2010; Hugman, 2010; Midgley, 2001). Problems like HIV/AIDS, child labor and human trafficking are prevalent across the globe and “social work must now face these global problems which often require global intervention” (Edwards, 2010, p. 580). In many cases, social workers within their localities deal with problems that have international dimensions like addressing the needs of refugees and
immigrants, international adoptions or trauma that is related to wars and terrorism and the gross human rights violations as well.

Healy in her most recent publication asserts that “multicultural and international social work overlap and are not mutually exclusive but distinctive” (Healy, 2012, p. 12) especially as “international social work practice seeks to engage with cultural, social, economic, and political forces that affect individuals, families, and communities” (p. 12). On the other hand, multicultural issues deal with “understanding the importance of culture in people’s lives, access to resources and ways of communicating with one another” (Healy, 2012, p. 12).

1.2 Statement of the problem

There is no doubt these days that the social work profession has made insidious progress in many areas such as Administration/Management; Advocacy and Community Organization; Aging and Gerontology, Alcohol, Tobacco, and Other Drugs; Child Welfare and Family; Developmental Disabilities; Health Care Social Work; International Social Work; Justice and Corrections; Mental Health and Clinical Social Work; Occupational and EAP Social Work; Policy and Planning; Politics; Military Social Work; Public Welfare; Research and School Social Work.

The Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) “was created to preserve and enhance the quality of social work education and practice. Social work programs accredited by CSWE “outline their admissions and curricula in catalogs and other university publications” (Goldstein, 2000, p. 3). Many curricula programmatically deal with “local issues” with international issues or contents scampering along.
In terms of international social work education, an international Commission complied by Lynne Healy and Yvonne Asamoah in conjunction with the Council of Social Work Education found that international content in a number of social work programs across the U.S. was making insidious progress also. Healy and Asamoah (1997) noted that the international content is a vast area from which educators could design courses or set of modules and integrate them in existing courses. According to Healy and Link (2012, p. 329) “social workers fulfill multiple roles in the international arena and the profession has much to contribute to global social policy and programs.”

However, many institutions accredited by the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) are yet to design many courses that deal with international social work issues and problems and there is a need for this as many social problems are now internationalized “particularly in the areas of migration, the sex trade in children, prostitution, child abduction, drugs and crime” (Dominelli, 2005, p. 64). Dominelli (2005, p. 64) further states much has not been done as social work “practice is predicted largely upon what happens on the ground in a particular locality and social work educators have yet to engage with the implications of globalisation for their teaching.” According to Beecher, Reeves, Eggertsen and Furuto (2010), part of the problem is that social work education often requires focusing on country-specific practice training and limits the inclusion of international content in the social work curriculum” (p. 204). Thus, “current patterns, barriers, and opportunities for optimal curricular will vary in diverse parts of the world” (Healy & Link, 2012, p. 329).
As globalization continues to change the dynamics of the world economic system, political structures and social structures in many countries and with the vast technological advancement especially in terms of “communication technologies have all drawn our world closer together” (Engstrom & Jones, 2007, p. 136), the Internet and the creation of social networking sites like MySpace, Facebook and Twitter; social work education unequivocally needs to prepare students for these changes both within their localities and globally. Also students can be part of classes via Skype and Blackboard system, Carmen, blogs, Electronic mails and blogs. Nowadays, people “carry iPods, iPhones, video cell phones, laptop computers and TV sets that bring instant news twenty-four hours a day shrinking the world to a small community” (Farley, Smith & Boyle, 2012, p. 2). Indeed, “our knowledge and collaborative interchanges have grown exponentially as daily we are able to interface and interact with one another” (Lord, 2011, p. 29). Globalization has enhanced trade greatly as goods from one country are found on the shelves of grocery stores around the world and “international political cooperation” (Midgley, 2001, p. 22) are on a large scale being facilitated by globalization. Globalization is very “relevant to social work” (Lyons, 2006, p. 365), and there is no doubt that “social work is uniquely positioned to contribute responses” (Wilson, 2012, p. 16) to the problems or challenges posed by globalization.

Based on the above, Asamoah, Healy & Mayadas (1997, p. 390) stated Educators, therefore need to examine the knowledge, attitudes and skills that will be required of American social work students in an increasingly diverse environment. Moreover, the profession has an
opportunity to redefine its contributions to social work education and problem solving worldwide in a new environment of mutuality and learning from other countries’ experiences.

Indeed as societies change, the needs of individuals become different and “the specific needs of the diverse constituencies by the profession also find their way into the changing curriculum” (Goldstein, 2001, p. 22). The broad nature of international social work topics makes it difficult for accredited CSWE programs to design new courses that will provide students with the requisite knowledge base if they want to concentrate on international social work. Besides, “there is some lack of agreement about what it means to internationalize social work education” (Edwards, 2011, p. 583). To reiterate Edward’s view point, Midgley, (2000, p. 1) states “there is a disagreement about the nature of international social work and the profession’s commitment to internationalizing the curriculum and social practice.” As the social work profession evolves, new theories could be developed based on the current trend “based on the cultivation of a multiplicity of voices” (Lord, 2011, p. 29 & 30). Thus, although international social work is regarded or has been recognized as an important area of social work education there is evidence that it has not received priority or accorded the attention it requires in accredited CSWE institutions in mid-western USA.

1.3 Significance of Problem to Social Work Education

This research was about exploring the state of international social work curriculum in some CSWE accredited institutions in Mid-Western USA that train students at the master’s level. The research problem has significant implications for
social work education as students need the requisite knowledge base to work in the changing global world. Asamoah, Healy & Mayadas (1997, p. 389) stated “although global interdependence has increased throughout recent decades, its full impact on social work has not yet been felt.” Many students are not very prepared to tackle the multifaceted problems in the global arena as the “social work curricula show little awareness of the repercussions of international events on social welfare practice and policy” (Asamoah et al. 1997, p. 341).

According to Estes (2009) international social work education prepares students not only by instilling the necessary knowledge base but also teaching them the skills to become advocates for millions of poor people around the world or those whose social justice are being trampled on. Estes (2009) states the goals of international social work include informed citizenship, competent domestic practice (with a focus on migration), international practice—especially in social/international development, and global policy/problem solving” (p. 13). The need for social work education to focus on local conditions of a country and then at the same time on events in other parts of the world is compelling more than before (Asamoah, Healy & Mayadas, 1997; Estes, 2009; Hugman, 2010). Thus, “it is becoming increasingly more difficult for social workers to work effectively today without a global perspective” (Lager, Mathiesen, Rodger & Cox, 2010, p. 15).

Notwithstanding the above, Healy (1999, p. 23) states international social work “content is not currently defined as an essential component in the education of professional social workers in the United States. It is up to individual programs to decide whether to include international content in the curricular,” stemming greatly
from “the short-term inspiration of one or two people” (Healy & Link, 2012, p. 331). This therefore leads me to explore my research questions.

1.4 Research Questions

This is a qualitative study using grounded theory methodology that explores the nature of international social work education in CSWE accredited institutions that prepare student for the master’s degree. The research questions for this study were threefold.

1) How do accredited CSWE institutions selected for this study provide educational experiences to prepare students for skills and knowledge in international social work?

2) What are the challenges encountered by participating accredited CSWE institutions when providing international social work education to their students?

3) How do social work professors and administrators who participate in this study conceptualize international social work?

1.5 Overview of the Chapters

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one provides a background to the study, a statement of the problem, purpose of the study and the significance to social work, methodological overview, research questions, and the overview of the chapters. Chapter two provides details of the literature review from the definition of social work and theoretical underpinnings and certain literature that has contributed to international social work practice and international social work education. Chapter three presents an overview of the methodology used, the rationale for grounded theory as an appropriate methodology, sampling and sample size, data collection, data management and analysis and the application of trustworthiness. Chapter four
presents the results of the study. Chapter five will incorporate further review of international social work literature, limitations of the study, analysis with the findings of the study, the implications to social work education, research and policy, and, conclusions of the study.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of some literature that has contributed to international social work, international social practice and international social work education. The literature reviewed in this chapter is in accordance with my research questions.

The first part of this chapter, presents definitions of social work, definitions and importance of international social work and social work education at present. The second part of the literature review dwells on theories about international social work or the international arena. Theories about learning, education and teaching and the analyze the Council on Social Work Education 2008 Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS) its implications on student learning will be discussed.

2.2 Background

Social work as a profession has made tremendous strides over the years especially after Abraham Flexner criticized the profession in the early part of the 20th century. Flexner at the U.S. National Conference of Charities and Corrections stated that social work was not a profession as it lacked a body of educationally transmissible techniques (Popple, 1995). According to Sherr (2008) “Flexner defined
the term “profession” as a limited group of activities that meet a certain predetermined set of objective criteria” (p. 67). Besides social work, Flexner was not convinced that other “newly created branches of knowledge such as journalism, library science” (Iwabuchi, 2004, p. 148) were worthy of the professional status claimant. Flexner outlined six criteria to assess whether social work was a profession which included the following:

Professions involve essentially intellectual operations with large individual responsibility; they derive their raw material from science and learning; this material they work up to a practical and definite end; they possess an educationally communicable technique; they tend to self-organization; they are becoming increasingly altruistic in motivation (p.1).

According to Flexner there was no line of demarcation when it came to social work practice and their respective field, a thing that was discernible with other professions like architecture, theology, medicine, law and engineering. Sherr (2008, p. 68) makes a blunt assertion that “Flexner views the field of social work as too numerous and diverse to constitute a single educational discipline” Flexner, however “described social workers as intelligent, kindhearted, and resourceful people who perform an important mediating function” (Sherr, 2008, p. 68). Apart from social work, Flexner (1960) wrote a damaging report also of the medical profession at the time stating that medical schools had over produced “uneducated and ill trained medical practitioners” (p. x). According to Hunt (1991, p. 105) a “great revolution in medical education in the early 1900s included Flexner’s powerful recommendations for the inclusion of medical education within the structure of universities.” So that
curriculum design and staff emolument were “governed by the greater university” (p. 105”).

In the United States although social workers labored to provide material assistance to poor people (Estes, 1992), it was the publication of Mary Richmond’s work *Social Diagnosis* in 1917 that lend credence to the profession as it answered some of the questions advanced by Abraham Flexner (Healy, 2001) and followed by this was Jane Addams winning the profession’s first Nobel Prize, together with co-winner Nicholas Murray Butler in 1931 (Elshtain, 2002; Estes, 1992). Addams was one of the leading public intellectuals of her days and a prolific and elegant writer who used her prowess to bring social work to the fore by delineating its importance (Elshtain, 2002). Addams is probably best known as founder of Hull House in Chicago, one of the first social settlements in North America. From its beginnings at the end of the 19th century, international exchange and cooperation were important drivers for the development and establishment of professional social work in the industrialized countries that were competing on the global market.

In Germany about that same period, Alice Salomon demanded that a uniform standard be devised for educating social workers as there was a big demand for social workers at the close of World War I (Healy, 2001). Authorities at the time in Germany were not very convinced about the definition of social work but Salomon was steadfast in developing a standard and later on opened a school of social work in Berlin, Germany (Healy, 2012) and this was the same problem prevalent in France as well (Healy, 2001).
There has been the creation of international social work organizations like the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW) formed in 1928; the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW) founded in 1956 and the founding of The Inter-University Consortium for International Social Development in 1977 (Healy, 2008, Midgley, 2010) changing its original name of International Consortium for Social Development (ICSD) In 2005, the name changed again from IUC ISD to “the International Consortium for Social Development. According to Hall (2012, p. 294) the new name reflects the reality “that membership had become global and more diverse and the goals of the organization had expanded.” The ICSW founded in 1928 conducts international conferences of social work and the International Council on Social Welfare (ICSW) formed in 1928 (Correll, 2012). The IASSW “represents social work education worldwide” (Healy, 2012, p. 281) and this body has worked tremendously to promote and develop social work (Healy, 2012). In the case of IFSW, the organization; the organization represents “the interest of social workers around the world, with its secretariat based in Berne, Switzerland” (Hall, 2012, p. 267).

Importantly, international meetings have been held around the world to bring social workers closer than before especially on global social problems. According to Healy (2012, p. 281) “The First International Conference of Social Work, held in Paris in 1928, was a landmark event in the history of social work” as the conference was attended by many delegates from many countries around the globe (Healy, 2012). Remarkably, in 1976, the “International Code of Ethics was adopted by the International Federation of Social Workers at its meeting in Puerto Rico” (Healy,
This gives the “profession common ethical guidance” (Dominelli, 2009b, p. 20) to members across the world although adherence to the document is on a voluntary basis with codes of ethics by national associations treated with more importance (Dominelli, 2009b). Criticisms have been leveled against the international code of ethics as being influenced greatly by Western paradigms and hence the creation of indigenous codes in some parts of the world (Dominelli, 2009b).

Social work in the United States dates back to 1877 with the creation of the Charity Organization Society (COS) established in Buffalo, New York (Segal, Gerdes, & Steiner, 2004). In 1887 the Settlement Movement started with the opening of the neighborhood Guild Settlement in New York City. Two years later Hull House, the second settlement house in the United States was opened in Chicago (Segal et al., 2004). In 1903 the New York School of Philanthropy later known as Columbia University of Social Work was founded (Healy, 2008). According to Midgley (2010) “the settlements provided educational, recreational and youth services and sought to mobilize local people to improve their neighborhoods” (p. 5).

Social work these days is a professional activity of helping individuals or groups or communities to enhance or restore their capacity for social functioning and to create societal conditions favorable to their goals (NASW, 1994). The social work profession has undergone tremendous changes that have molded it into a well-accepted and viable occupation (Dominelli, 2003; Hugman, 2010; Larkin, 2004; Lyons, 1999; Lyons et al, 2006; Midgley, 1997, 2010; Payne 2006; Reamer, 1998; Welbourne, 2009; Whitley & Wolk, 1999). The profession has developed “a
distinctive knowledge base, registration and protection of title, the development of a Code of Ethics and a move to requiring higher education at graduate level (Welbourne, 2009, p. 21). However, the salaries or other forms of remunerations in many states have not been commensurate especially for social work jobs performed that are vital in present day societies such as children’s issues, resettlement of refugees and displaced people, mental health services and linking families to resources that could ameliorate their problems of living within the environment. Welbourne (2009) asserts that besides the low remuneration in comparison with other professions the public regard for the profession varies between countries.

The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) outlined guidelines and ethical expectations of social workers, all in a bid to make the profession respectable and stand proud in the midst of other traditional professions like Law, Medicine and Theology making it distinctly clear of what the social work profession is about. The Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) has set standards and conditions for institutions to fulfill before accreditation. Thus by the 21st Century social work was making insidious progress in many other areas like hospitals and schools, the military and other areas that hitherto shunned the importance of the profession. Notwithstanding this, Khinduka (2004, p. 1) stated “social work is neglected by many of our prestigious research universities. Albeit, the social work profession is forging ahead and many institutions have been accredited by CSWE and other institutions are seeking accreditations.

At the end of the baccalaureate program, students are awarded the bachelor’s degree usually with generalist practice skills and subsequently licensure. With the
Master’s degree, many students concentrate on specific areas for their practical experiences or internships and hence specialize in these areas. At present the following are the choices of areas in the NASW brochure *CHOICES* viz Administration/Management; Advocacy and Community Organization; Aging and Gerontology, Alcohol, Tobacco, and Other Drugs; Child Welfare and Family; Developmental Disabilities; Health Care Social Work; International Social Work; Justice and Corrections; Mental Health and Clinical Social Work; Occupational and EAP Social Work; Policy and Planning; Politics; Public Welfare; Research and School Social Work.

Social work offers three core modalities of practice namely casework, group work, and community organization (Midgley, 2010). Casework is very primordial in current practice settings and it is “also known as direct practice or more recently as clinical social work” (Midgley, 2010, p. 4). Community practice is also very important and social workers work in “residential facilities, rehabilitation centers, and family and child welfare agencies” (Midgley, 2010, p. 4). Human services agencies are now the front runners in providing services to their populations and their services are conspicuously dominated by “individualized casework” (Midgley, 2010, p. 4) and they do offer group work as well and are very much engaged in community services for a host of clients.

2.3 Definition of Social Work

With the formation of the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) “it became evident that there was a need for a definition and clarification of social work practice in order to codify the unifying elements of the profession” (Johnson,
1986, p. 53). According to Sevel, Cummins and Madrigal (1999, p. 1) NASW defines social work as

The purpose of both direct and indirect social work practice are to bring about the best possible adaptation among individuals, families, and groups and their environments; to set in motion a change process that will enhance people’s problem-solving, coping and developmental capacities; to link people with systems that provide resources, services, and opportunities; and to promote the effectiveness and humane operations of these systems.

According to Dominelli (2009, p. 1) “social work is an exciting profession.” “Social work is the art and science of helping others” (Sevel, Cummins & Madrigal, 1999, p. 1), as they can “support any person in need at any stage in the life cycle from birth to death” (Dominelli, 2009, p. 1). The social work profession plays key role in any society addressing local issues in their localities and also “tackling a particular blend of connections between the local and the global in concerns as diverse as: the sex trade in children; international adoptions; migrations linked to natural disasters and armed conflict; traffic in drugs and organized crime” (Dominelli, 2009, p. 1).

Payne’s definition of social work clearly shows the important roles social workers play in ameliorating the problems people encounter.

Social workers seek social betterment, but mostly they do it by helping individuals, families and small social groups as part of their professional work. Societies change and people mostly have small concerns for others who struggle with how that society is organised,
but social work seeks to adapt social movement and change so that it is more manageable by, and more help to individuals, particularly those who are poor and disadvantaged (2006, p. 1).

Founded in 1952, the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) “is recognized by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) as the sole accrediting agency for social work education in the United States (CSWE, 2010). In “1982” (Germain, 1991, p. 5), CSWE in its Curriculum Policy Statement (CPS) outlined the purpose of social work to include the following:

B4.1 The profession of social work is committed to the enhancement of human well-being and the alleviation of poverty and oppression. The social work profession receives its sanction from public and private auspices and is the primary profession in the provision of social services. Within its general scope of concerns, professional social work is practiced in a wide variety of settings. It has four related purposes:

B4.1.1 The promotion, restoration, maintenance, and enhancement of the functioning of individuals, families, households and social groups, organizations and communities by helping them to accomplish tasks, prevent and alleviate distress, and use resources.

B4.1.2 The planning, formulation and implementation of social policies, services, resources, and programs needed to meet basic human needs and support the development of human capacities.
B4.1.3 The pursuit of policies, services, resources, and programs through organizational or administrative advocacy and social or political action, to empower groups at risk and to promote social and economic justice.

B41.4 The development and testing of professional knowledge and skills to these purposes.

The Council on Social Work Education in its 2008 Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS) states

The purpose of the social work profession is to promote human and community well-being. Guided by a person and environment construct, a global perspective, respect for human diversity, and knowledge based on scientific inquiry, social work’s purpose is actualized through its quest for social and economic justice, the prevention of conditions that limit human rights, the elimination of poverty, and the enhancement of the quality of life for all persons (2008 EPAS, p. 1)

The definitions and purposes of social work by NASW and CSWE imbibe “an ecological or person: environment perspective” (Germain, 1991, p. 6). According to Segal, Gerdes and Steiner (2004, p. 10) “the importance of understanding problems and directing change efforts at both the individual and environment level is central to good social work practice.”

In other parts of the world, for instance in many African countries, “the curative or remedial approach” of social work (Chitereka, 2009), is widely used in addressing social problems like HIV/AIDS, food scarcity, children’s issues and
mental health. During the colonial era in Africa, social services were provided by missionaries “or charities created by settlers or educated local people” (Midgley, 1995, p. 53). Later on the colonial governments became very much involved and imported social workers from their home countries (Midgley, 1995) to work in Africa. After independence social services were provided by the governments and missionary organizations in a bid to ameliorate the social problems that became prevalent (Midgley, 1997). Social work in Africa involves community practice and community advocacy (Hugman, 2010) and the governments play pivotal role in providing social services as well. Indeed colonization of African countries by the developed world has considerable impact on social work practice and they continue to struggle in developing indigenous practices (Razack, 2010).

Social work definitions that exist include those with more clinical focus, individual orientations, macro practice, social development especially in the developing world, social change and social reform (Jones, 2009). With the varied definitions of social work that existed in many parts of the world, in 2000 the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW) and the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW) adopted the following as definition of social work:

The social work profession promotes social change, problem solving in human relationships and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being. Utilizing theories of human behavior and social systems, social work intervenes at the points where people interact with their environments. Principles of human rights and social
justice are fundamental to social work (International Federation of Social Workers, p.1).

Thus, it is important to note that social work creates the environment for people to reach their full potentials in life both nationally and in the international arena (Healy, 1999, 2001, 2008; Mapp, 2008; Payne & Askeland, 2008). Based on the above it is important also for students of social work to be given the opportunity to gain skills and knowledge of international social work as well.

According to Payne and Askeland (2010, p. 10) “social work has always been international.” Razack (2010 p. 253) asserts that “social work can be viewed as an international profession simply because it is taught and practiced in most ‘developing’ and ‘developed’ countries.” And therefore “social work education is an important focus in international social work” (p.1). It is very difficult these days for social workers to work effectively “without a global perspective” (Lager, Mathiesen, Rodgers & Cox, 2010, p. 15). The world is now more integrated than before and it is no longer possible to look at society separate from global issues (Hong & Song, 2010). Besides, many “social work educators share the consensus beliefs that practitioners must be able to work within the context of other cultures” (Engstrom & Jones, 2007, p. 136). With all the definitions above, Walker, Crawford, and Parker (2008, p. 16) state it is complex to define social work “especially in attempting to acknowledge the breadth and depth of social work operating within complex human situations.” With this, Walker, Crawford and Parker (2008, p. 16) provide a definition as follows:
social work is a problem-solving activity, carried out by the worker through relationships with the individual, family and community.

Social work is usually needed when individuals, families or groups are facing a major and often life changing problem or challenge. Social workers help individuals and families to achieve the outcomes they want in the ways they prefer.

Sewpaul and Jones (2004) state in various parts of the world, social work is “targeted at interventions for developmental, protective, preventive and/or therapeutic purposes” (p. 494), on the whole, the social work profession seeks to address the “person-environment interaction” (Larkin, 2004, p. 2). Now seen as the primary profession that deals with social problems people encounter in their countries one can authoritatively state it is a universal profession. Healy (2012, p. 12) reminds us that although the social work profession is in nearly every country “professional social work originated in Europe and North America at the end of the nineteen century.”

2.4 Definition of International Social Work

Many academics have offered definitions of international social work (Barker, 1999; Cox & Pawar, 2006; Dominelli, 2003, Healy, 2001, 2008, 2012; Hugman, Moosa-Mitha & Moyo, 2010; Lager, Mathiesen, Rodgers & Cox, 2010; Mohan, 2007; Payne & Askeland, 2010; Razack, 2010). International social work is vast as it encompasses a lot and therefore there is lack of consensus as to what the focus should be (Beecher et al, 2010; Midgley, 2001). According to Midgley (2001, p. 24) “there is no standardized definition of the term international social work or agreement about
what international social entails.” Barker (1999, p. 250) states that international social work is “a term loosely applied to (1) international organizations using social work methods or personnel, (2) social work cooperation between countries, and (3) transfer between countries of methods or knowledge about social work.” The term international social work has been used way back at the First International Conference of Social Work in 1928 held in London (Healy, 2008, 2012). Thus the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW), the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW), and the International Council for Social Welfare (ICSW) were established in the same year so as to bring people together from different countries (Dominelli, 2003). According to Warren (1937) cited in Healy (2008) in his article included in the Social Work Yearbook of 1939 international social work includes four main types of activities:
   a) international social case work; b) international assistance,
   c) public and private, to disaster or war suffers and distressed
d) minority groups; international conference on social work; and e) international cooperation by governments and private bodies through the medium of League of Nations, the International Labour Organization and the Health Organization of the League in combating disease
and securing social and political peace and harmony throughout the world (p. 8).

Healy (2001, p. 7) a proponent of international social work education in the United States defined international social work as follows:

International social work is defined as international professional action and the capacity for international action by the social work profession and its members.

International action has four dimensions: internationally related domestic practice and advocacy, professional exchange, international practice and international policy development and advocacy.

Defining international social work, Cox and Pawar (2006, p. 20) stated that international social work is the promotion of social work education and practice and globally and locally, with the purpose of building a truly integrated international profession that reflects social work’s capacity to respond appropriately and effectively, in education and practice terms, to the various global challenges that are having a significant impact on the well-being of large sections of the world’s population.

Mohan (2007) stated that getting students on a guided tour does not bear full credence in the definition of international social work and therefore defined international social work as
a consciousness of social work’s destiny: education that promotes a world without barriers; a pursuit of excellence, not a networking device to attain eminence.

Its objective is to lubricate the complex and rusted fabric of global interactions (p.14).

Further also, Lorenz (1997) noted that transcending national levels in social work based on an individuals’ personal hobby or a specialist dealing with immigrants or refugees is not enough as social work as a whole is “enmeshed in global process of change” (p. 2). At present international activities have continued to increase and diversify especially with the aid of improved technology and extent of poverty around the world and natural disasters also. Many formal and informal structures “exist to social work’s energies at the international level” (Estes, 1992, p. 1). According to Mohan (2007, p. 19), on the whole “international social work should be redefined as a professional discipline that promotes transnational knowledge, studies and experiences to foster equality and justice.”

Hugman, Moosa-Mitha and Moyo (2010) identify five elements in conceptualizing international social work. First though is that a social worker travels to “another country in order to undertake some professional activity” (p. 632). Secondly, social workers deal with refugees and other migrants who have been affected by war or natural disaster from their place of origin. Thirdly, Hugman et al, (2010) state “working with international organizations, such as international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) or quasi-governmental organizations” (p. 633) entails international social work. Also “exchanges or
collaborations between countries in a bid to share ideas or work together on projects that cross national borders” (p. 633), and the effects of the “global market economy on people’s well-being” (p. 633).

For this research, I used the definition by Cox and Pawar (2006) as it shows the need for the profession to look at the problems individuals experience at the global level. Also they note the importance of social work education and how it should go along practice trends especially as global problems like natural disasters, human trafficking, child labor, wars, famine, refugees and internal displacement of people transcend national boarders and the impact of globalization is visible in every part of the world.

It has been conspicuously clear that social work professors, social workers individually or through their agencies and organizations have performed international actions (Healy, 2001). On this note, such actions “require knowledge about international relations” (Healy, 2001, p. 1). Thus it becomes necessary for institutions to have the necessary expertise to train students who may want to concentrate in the area of international social work so that they could promote the values and ideals of the social work profession internationally (Edwards, 2011, Midgley, 2001). Healy (2001) however, notes that in spite of the demand for international social work amidst the global interdependence in the United States, the social work “profession has not seized the opportunities for increasing its impact internationally” (p. 2) and the internationalization of the curriculum has not occurred much (Healy, 1998). To encapsulate this, Midgley (2001) states “a plethora of definitions have emerged” (p. 24). A good number of writers like Dominelli, Healy, Link, Lord, and Midgley
believe that schools of social work should increase the international social work content and they propose what it should comprise of.

2.5 Importance of International Social Work

Social work was recognized as an international profession by the United Nations in 1951 (Asamoah, 1997), the “United Nations saw social work education as an essential social service systems” (Healy, 2004, p. 26), and in 1956 the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) set up a committee to devise a definition of international social work (Healy, 2001). The term international social work is now widely used when people refer to exchanges that take place between social workers from different societies and cultures (Midgley, 1990, 2001) or social work students going on study abroad programs (Estes, 1992; Mohan, 2007; Robb, 2005). Studying international social work has become more important than before especially as the current trends in the world make it very useful as international exchanges for instance have had tangible consequences for the profession (Midgley, 1990). Thus international social work has an important role in consolidating democracy, promoting social justice and helping poor people in the developing world to realize their potential (Ahmadi, 2002; Dominelli, 2003; Healy, 1987, 2001, 2008, 2012; Hugman, 2010; Lager, Mathiesen, Rodgers & Cox, 2010; Lyons, 1999; Midgley, 1997, 2001; Mapp, 2008; Mohan, 2007; Sewpaul & Jones, 2004; Watts, 1995).

International social work is the promotion of social work education and practice globally and locally, with the purpose of building a truly integrated international profession that reflects social work’s capacity to respond appropriately and effectively, in education and practice terms, to the various global challenges that
are having a significant impact on the people (Dominelli, 2003; Healy, 1999, 2001, 2008, 2012; Midgley, 2001). Thus these global challenges and needs require social work to provide more areas in the curriculum (Engstrom & Jones, 2007), as “social work has tended to be a locality specific discipline that has focused on geographically bounded legislation” (Dominelli, 2003, p. 19). A pioneer in the field of social work in the United States, Shanti Khinduka emphatically stated

> No school can aspire to become a great school of social work without becoming international in scope and character. To become truly international, we must be willing to learn from the experiences of colleagues in other nations, including those that are economically less developed (Khinduka, 2004, p. 4).

According to Khinduka (2004) knowledge of social work practice and education should flow in both directions from the North to the South and then from the South to the North as experiences will be shared on an egalitarian basis.

Generally, opportunities abound in children services, elder care, mental health, juvenile justice, disabilities, relief work, project development and more (Estes, 1992; NASW, 2005; Robb, 2005). Robb (2005) stated that some international positions are short-term while others are long-term and in some cases many are volunteer positions but offer generous compensation packages and exciting career paths. At present many international non-governmental organizations in the United States of America like World Vision, Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE) and The American Red Cross, American Jewish World and British organizations like OXFAM and Save the Children employ many graduates
who have degrees in public health, international business or international relations but few social workers. Conversely, majority of social workers in the United States are catalogued in areas like child welfare, mental health, school social work and Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities (MR/DD).

Thus it is undisputedly clear that the extensive training social workers receive at their internships in synchronization with theoretical foundations in classes prepare them effectively to deal with populations overseas that are in need of professional social services (Dominelli, 2003; Healy, 1999, 2001, 2008). Remarkably, the levels of professionalism and expertise some social workers have done in austere environments have been stunning (Robb, 2005). Mental health professionals for instance have performed clinical type counseling in large refugee camps and displaced camps that have many victims of gender-based crimes, such as rape (Estes, 1992; Lamin, 2007; Lyons, 1999; NASW, 2005; Robb, 2005).

Indeed, international social work is significant to the development of the social work profession, as it fulfills the social work mission by helping to provide social justice in other parts of the world; it brings in diversity and clinical type counseling in refugee camps (Dominelli, 2003; Healy, 1999, 2001, 2008).

2.5.1 Global Social Changes

At the turn of the new millennium there have been many changes at the global level in “relation to political, ideological, economic, technological and environmental conditions” (Lyons, 1999, p. 2) that have affected or continue to affect countries across the world. Natural disasters like the Tsunami in Asia, the horrendous devastation of lives and property in Haiti after the earthquake in January 2010 and the
case of Chile on February 27, 2010 with a magnitude of 8.8; the New Zealand earthquake with a magnitude of 6.3 that shook Christchurch city on the South Island of the country and the 2011 earthquake of Japan with a magnitude of 9.0. The floods in Pakistan in August 2010, the frequency of floods in Bangladesh, the environmental disaster caused in the Gulf of Mexico after the “British Petroleum (BP) deep water oils spill” (Healy, 2012, p. 4) and the demise of Somalia after the civil war erupted in 1991 created the displacements of people and eventually these people became refugees in other countries. According to Sanders (2009) cited in Dominelli (2010) there are more than 90,000 refugees in the camps along the Kenya-Somalia border more than three times the number it was deemed to cater for. The magnitude of some of the problems within countries like Indonesia, Haiti, Chile and Pakistan made it very difficult for its people to provide the necessary help in rebuilding their countries, hence the major contribution by social workers from other parts of the world including the U.S.A. helped to salvage the plights of the people in such precarious situations.

Take the issue of poverty. This has been a universal problem across the globe (Healy, 2001, 2008; Midgley, 2001). Since the late sixties, poverty has been a ubiquitous problem that has caught world leaders in quagmire. Even rich countries of the world continue to grapple with the problems associated with poverty. Not even the United States of America the world’s richest nation has won the war against poverty launched by Lyndon B. Johnson in the late sixties. In other parts of the world particularly in developing countries poverty has been a thorn in the flesh of many leaders. Many people in the developing world live in economic misery, squalor and
are prone to many diseases (Lamin, 2007) that have reduced their life expectancies drastically. According to Cox and Pawar (2006, p. 51) “Poverty, with its associated problems such as infant mortality, malnutrition, and vulnerability is commonly regarded as the world’s most serious problem.” Thus many people from other parts of the world emigrate to the U.S. for the simple reason of economic improvement and social well-being; in search of the greener pasture.

By the early 1990s, nearly all countries in Africa had secured loans from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and had implemented the structural adjustment conditionalities (Lamin, 2007). For instance, owing to the cuts in government spending particularly on welfare programs women and children became further marginalized with demonstrable effects on their health and this culminated into serious hardships for them. Also, globalization has created tremendous problems for many nations in the developing world (Ahmadi, 2003) in the areas of housing, education, and agriculture and food sufficiency.

Many social problems these days transcend national borders or boundaries and therefore need transnational solutions in curbing them (Khinduka, 2004). Khinduka furthers states that “migration, structural unemployment, HIV/AIDS, hunger, and violence are international issues” (Khinduka, 2004, p. 4). Also problems like elderly care, drug trafficking and the increased related deaths “child labor, ethnic discord, poverty, and social exclusion must be addressed as global challenges” (Khinduka, 2004, p. 4) and this puts social workers in the forefront to address these issues.
One of the core values of the social profession is service, therefore “social work’s primary goal is to help people in need and to address social problems” (NASW, Code of Ethics, 1999). The preamble of the code of ethics of the National Association of Social Workers revised in 1999 states that

The primary mission of the social work profession is to enhance human well-being and help meet the basic needs of all people, with particular attention to the needs and empowerment of people who are vulnerable, oppressed and living in poverty


In this vein, many international organizations and individuals around the world have made significant contributions to shaping social work practice in Africa and other parts of the world by implementing social policies (Ahmadi, 2003), especially to salvage women from the throes of war and of poverty. The battle against poverty has been a major concern of many international social work organizations and they help to improve the catastrophic state women and children find themselves in developing countries (Hugman, 2010). It is common to see many television advertisements from international organizations appealing to people to donate a dollar a day that would help alleviate their penury. In many of these countries, majority of the “people live on less than $ 2 a day, and 4 out of 10 people survive on less than $ 1 a day” (World Bank, 2002, p.8). The number of poor people rose from 130 million in 1980 to 180 million at the beginning of 1990 (Bello, 1994). Generally speaking, the functions of international social workers are diverse, providing services in villages,
displaced and refugee camps, feeding centers and even support many governments in the day to day administrations of their countries “promoting democratic principles, establishing and administering social welfare systems, and strategy development” (NASW 2003, Brochure). Indeed the “social welfare services provided and populations served fit more closely the goals and priorities of social work than those of any other profession” (Healy, 2001, p.1). According to NASW “social workers provide a range of services in a variety of international assistance programs” including “humanitarian assistance programs, post-disaster development and reconstruction, international, economic, and social development for national and societies in transition” (NASW, 2003, Brochure).

The two variables of interest are globalization and women. Thus it is because of the connection of developing countries in the world economic order that women continue to suffer. Jere-Mwiindilila (1994) found that with the introduction of medical fees in Zambia many women have to bear the extra burden of nursing their sick at home, and they have to choose which illnesses which are serious enough to take to the hospital. Therefore, “diseases which are curable have been left untreated and subsequently have fatal results” (Jere-Mwiindilila, 1994, p.7). The privatization of state owned enterprises in Zambia has caused severe job losses for many people in the country through retrenchment, redundancy and early retirements (Jere-Mwiindilila, 1994). Whitaker (1997) observed that the government in Mozambique privatized over 300 enterprises in quick succession making more than 100,000 workers, nearly 25 percent of the industrial workforce jobless as a result of the privatization. In the case of Sierra Leone, after many years of successful business, on
the advice of the IMF, the Sierra Leone Produce Marketing Board (SLPMB) was disbanded in 1992 (Lamin, 2007). Sadly however, “the government failed to look into the future of the 2, 400 employees who had relied on the Board for employment” (Lamin, 2007, p. 162). Many women in these institutions lacked the skills that would have enabled them to seek other employment and their governments could not provide for them (Lamin, 2007). Thus the failure by these governments to provide welfare services for their people especially women and children has created a great need for international social workers who work for international non-governmental agencies that seeks to ameliorate the plights of poor people.

2.5.2 Immigrants

At the start of the 20th Century, many Africans immigrated to the United States as free men, unlike their predecessors who came to the New World bound in chains. These men left Africa in search of education, fortune and romance (Nyang, 1998). Nyang (1998) puts them into four categories: 1) Students who came with the support of white Christian Missionaries. 2) Then were other students who came to study secular and sacred knowledge, for one reason or the other, conjugal entanglements with White American and African American women led to their decision to permanently stay in the U.S. 3) Seamen and stowaways who sailed to the United States either on American ships or foreign ships. Moving away from Africa, Shim and Schwartz (2007) note Asians have migrated on a large scale to Western countries since the mid1900s and at present “they have migrated from other countries into the United States, statistically resulting in the second largest ethnic minority group in the country” (Shim & Schwartz, 2007, p. 409). According to Llana (2011,
“from 1970 to 2010, more than 10 million Mexican migrated to the US.” Many Europeans have immigrated to the United States since the early 1500s so the United States has become a melting pot since then last century.

The U.S. Committee for Refugees (USCR) was founded in 1958 to coordinate the United States participation in the United Nation’s International Refugee Year (1959). In over fifty years since its founding, USCR has worked for refugee protection and assistance in all regions of the world. Repressive governments, internal conflicts, and opposition to other reforms have led to massive human rights abuses and subsequently the displacement on many people in Africa. Since the early 1970s, USCR has been a leading voice on behalf of uprooted people in Sudan and Uganda. USCR reported on the desperate flight of Ethiopian refugees, and was one of the first international organizations to warn that conflict in Somalia would lead to famine. USCR has also provided ground-breaking reports on brutal wars in Mozambique, Rwanda, Burundi, Congo/Zaire, Sierra Leone and Liberia. In the last decade many Africans have immigrated to the United States as the U.S. provided a safe abode for many of them fleeing the throes of war or the carnage and devastation. Many others who were already in the States or those entering on visitor visas later sought political asylum as there was no way for them to return to the anarchy and bloodletting that was prevalent in the country. The U.S. Refugee Act of 1980, Pub. L. No. 96-212 aids individuals fleeing prosecution in their homeland. The Act “provided a formal definition of “refugee” which is virtually identical to the definition in the 1967 United Nations Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees” (USDHHS, 2002, p. 1). Three federal agencies play key roles in the U.S. resettlement program. The Immigration
and Naturalization Service (INS), the Department of State (DOS) and the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS).

Each year also, “since 1988 the federal government of the United States runs an unusual lottery—not a lottery that awards cash but, one that wards 50,000 visas” (Law, 2002, p. 1), to people who come from countries with low rates of immigration to the United States who meet the requirement of: having a high school diploma or 12 years of course of elementary and secondary education or 2 years of work experience. Thus these new immigrants usually need social workers to work with as they try to acculturate in the new country as social services are fragmented and guidance is needed to gain access to them.

2.5.3 Globalization

Globalization also has been a centrifugal force behind the mass movement of people and that of social change affecting communities and societies worldwide (Ashfar & Barrientos, 1999; Cox & Pawar, 2006; Dominelli, 2003; Dominelli, 2010a; Dominelli, 2010b; Hokenstad & Midgley, 2004; Hong & Song, 2010; Lager, Mathiesen, Rodgers & Cox, 2010; Lyngstad, 2006; Lyons, 2006; Lyons et al, 2006; McMichael, 2000; Midgley, 1997, 2001; Payne & Askeland, 2008; Vincent, 2009). Globalization has brought about greater movement of commodities, money and a host of economic activities without any interference from national governments (Hong & Song, 2010; Lyngstad, 2006; McMichael, 2000; Midgley, 1997, 1997). Globalization has brought about an increased interconnectedness of people hence the coinage of the term global village (Dominelli, 2010; Rai, 1998). The presence of globalization is real as Lyons (2006, p. 366) asserts
globalization is a reality, that it affects all societies and sections within
them (albeit in different ways), and that systems of welfare and the
practices of social workers are affected by the processes and effects of
globalization and other regional influences.

Globalization is a process of interaction and integration among the people,
companies and governments of different nations, a process driven by international
trade and investment and aided by information technology (McMichael, 2000). This
process has effects on the environment, on culture, on political systems, on economic
prosperity, and on human physical well-being in societies around the world (Frank,
1979). Theorists from this framework drew heavily on Structural-Functionalists such
as Durkheim who posited that societies evolve through a series of phases from
primitive/traditional to more complex and modern. Although different theorists
posited different mechanisms for this evolution, the implication for development was
that impoverished societies or individuals were those who had not evolved the
appropriate modern structures (Rostow, 1960), and values (Inkeles, 1974) to run these
systems efficiently.

The post-colonial emerging nations were seen as divided between modern
sectors and the traditional or village sectors (Rostow, 1960). In addition to these
sociological theorists, the success of the Marshall plan, with its emphasis on the
importation of technology, infrastructure, training and credit, in the reconstruction of
Europe after World War II also suggested that modernization could occur through the
transfer of goods, systems or values from advanced nations to less advanced nations
(McMichael, 2000). The United States hoped to use its financial wealth to rekindle
the economic malaise that was bedeviling some parts of the world especially as the
Soviet Union was establishing her prowess in Asia (McMichael, 2000).

Conversely, the globalization project has not worked well in certain areas
(McMichael, 2000). The essence of globalization, the extent of global networks and
the power structures underlying the globalization process have been of much concern
to many because it appears to pose endless challenges to many people in many parts
of the developing world. Today, humanity is faced with both unending fears and
hopes as technological advancements continually enhance the globalization epoch.
Globalization has led to globalized strata of wealth, with multinational corporations
as power holders instead of the tremendous powerful colonial relationship that existed
before (Midgley, 1997). Cable (1995) stated that the nation-state has ‘lost’
sovereignty to regional and global institutions and to markets although it also
acquired new areas of control in order to promote national competitiveness. The
state’s role, therefore, becomes one of helping to adjust the domestic economy to the
requirements of the world economy (Cable, 1995; Midgley, 1997).

McMichael (2000) noted that globalization increases the profits of
international companies which remain unconcerned about the social well-being of
people. With the introduction of the structural adjustment conditionalities by the
International Monetary Fund (IMF) in the early 1980s many governments in the
developing world became incapacitated to provide social services for their citizens
and poverty is now a bane to development as well (Lamin, 2007; Midgley, 1997).
Poverty has its associated problems such as lack of housing, infant mortality,
malnutrition, vulnerability to water borne diseases (Estes, 1992; Lyon, 1999;
Midgley, 1997, 2001). In situations of poverty, women carry a disproportionate share of the risks and consequences to the extent of finding it so difficult to provide their daily meals (Lamin, 2007) living on a dollar a day and there is common par lance these known as the feminization of poverty. Reichert (2012, p. 447) state “a woman’s access to resources, work, housing, education, and other advantages often determines the level of power she possess.” According to a report by the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) many children in the developing world are seriously affected by wars. Throughout history, people have fled their homes to escape persecution, rape and extrajudicial killings (Lamin, 2007). In the aftermath of World War II, the international community included the right to asylum in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In 1950, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) was created to protect and assist refugees, and, in 1951, the United Nations adopted the Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, a legally binding treaty that, by February 2002, had been ratified by 140 countries. Indeed, these global problems need the help of social workers as they would use their skills and values of caring and empowerment in helping vulnerable people overseas. Apparently it is obvious that the world’s problems are everybody’s problems and hence a pivotal role to be played by international social workers. This then would require social workers to acquire “better knowledge of the world scene and more cooperation among nations” (Hokenstad & Midgley, 2004, p. 4). In the present day era, social workers’ involvement in the United Nations and international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) is of primordial importance as
they would “help shape global programs aimed at mitigating the negative effects of the global economic system” (Hakenstad & Midgley, 2004, p. 2).

Globalization has brought about the bureaucratization and commodification of social work practice as market forces or governmental regulations continue to permeate every aspect of it (Dominelli, 2010a). Globalization has brought an increased number of poor people around the world and this is a very big challenge to social workers in the international practice and this has led to the dominance of case management techniques (Dominelli, 2010a). Social workers in a way to address these new challenges have formulated “new theories and models for practice” (Dominelli, 2010a, p. 604). Shareholders are more than ever before determined to make profits for services hence the commodification of people (Dominelli, 2010a). Thus in the last few years “social professional are beginning to adapt education and practice developments in line with new realities” (Lyons, 2006, p. 366). Migration patterns have changed considerably and immigrants these days maintain network between their minority communities and their countries of origin “which are manifest in various ways, including cultural influences and transfer of financial resources” (Lyons, 2006, p. 367). Indeed the spate of cultural influence by immigrants has created a great significance for policy makers and social service workers and this renders in the marked implications of globalization itself (Lyons, 2006). Thus with the marked impact of globalization on welfare countries like Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United Kingdom and even the United States that offer assistance to immigrants social workers are expected to step up by acquiring the knowledge that will prepare them well in serving these people.
2.6 *International Social Work Education*

According to the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) in their Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS) of 2008 the purpose of social work profession is:

*To promote human and community well-being. Guided by a person and environment construct, a global perspective, respect for human diversity, and knowledge based on scientific inquiry, social work’s purpose is actualized though its quest for social and economic justice, the prevention of conditions that limit human rights, the elimination of poverty, and the enhancement of quality of life for all* (CSWE, 2008, p. 1).

From the above, it is quite clear that social work educators should serve the profession’s future by the provision of competent professionals who can work around the globe (Dominelli 2004; Healy, 2008; Lee, 2008, Midgley, 2001). According to Jones (2009, p. 14) “social work education aims to equip students with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for effective practice.” Dominelli (2004) states international social work is “at the crossroads and needs to consider its future in terms of directions it wishes to proceed” (p. 91).

In the United States, “social work has tended to be thought about and theorized primarily within the context of modernity and the nation state” (p. 91). So in many cases many accredited institutions “perpetrate the myth that international social work merely involves the crossing of borders” (p. 91) and therefore remain short of designing new courses in international social work. In the case of the United
Kingdom, Lyons (2006) writes that many programs have developed courses at their bachelor’s and graduate level to offer “specialist international education” (p. 371). Dominelli (2004, p. 92) suggests that “social work educators and practitioners need to retheorise social work in ways that situate practice in a locality within the global context within which it is embedded and begin to unpack the connections that exists between different levels of activity.” Dominelli (2004) notes social work education needs to be formulated by designing the curriculum that could prepare students to face the many global social problems. The pressure for change that stems “from forces within the broader sociopolitical context” (Jones, 2009, p. 14) cannot be ignored. Asamoah, Healy, and Mayadas (1991) state the curricular should be designed with a global focus and that the distinction between international and domestic social work is no longer relevant and “internationalizing the curriculum is desirable and that it will increase the American social workers’ competence in domestic practice and enhance social work education’s participation in an international field” (p. 3). Thus “social problems have become internationalized and the crossing of borders is an integral part of both the problem of what needs to be done to resolve it locally, nationally or internationally” (p. 93).

However, Dominelli paints a pessimistic picture that “there are a few texts that have attempted the retheorisation of international social work in new directions” (p. 93) and gives Healy and Lyons as prominent examples. This somehow buttresses the view of Prof. Maria Julia (Personal communication, February 16, 2011) that there are few professors who have worked assiduously to infuse international social work topics in their programs’ curricula and that once they left their vacuum was not easily
filled. There has been a lack of continuity or difficulty in designing or maintaining courses once the pioneers left the program.

In a survey conducted by CSWE looking at the Primary Field of Practice among Master’s degree social work students the following were the main concentrations for students enrolled 11/1/03: Aging and Gerontology, Alcohol, Drug and Substances Abuse, Child Welfare, Corrections/Criminal Justice, Development Disability, Family Services, Group Services, Health, Occupational/Industrial Social Work, Mental Health or Community Mental Health, Public Assistance/Public Welfare, Rehabilitation, School Social Work and Other. Conspicuously, International Social Work is left out. However, some programs across the country “are intentionally reaching out globally for educating social work students” (Lee, 2008, p. 18). According to Tripodi and Tripodi (2007), faculty engaging in international social work research could be beneficial for reasons like social work problems encountered within one country increasingly have their causes, effects and/or counterparts elsewhere in the world. Therefore the international dimension of social work requires that social work professionals understand local approaches to social problems from a global point of view (Estes, 2009). According to Estes (2009) international social work education prepares students not only by instilling the necessary knowledge base but also teaching them the skills to become advocates for millions of poor people around the world or those whose social justice are being trampled on. Estes (2009) states the goals of international social work include “informed citizenship, competent domestic practice (with a focus on migration), international practice-especially in social/international development, and global policy/problem solving” (p. 13). Many
graduate programs are not well prepared “for the challenges of social work practice in the global era and social work curricula show little awareness of the repercussions of international events on social welfare practice and policy at home” (Healy, et al. 1997, p. 3).

Educators are to play pivotal role in examining the “knowledge, attitudes and skills that will be required of American social work in an increasingly diverse environment” (Healy et al, 1997, p. 2). Owing to the changes in global demographics and problems “social workers now more than ever need an international perspective” (Engstrom & Jones, 2007, p. 137). Limiting the scope of students by preparing them for specific problems mandated by their own societies restricts their abilities considerably (Dominelli, 2003; Healy, 1999, 2001, 2008). An international experience will not only expose them to other cultural values and social problems but also make them garner “different ways of approaching and solving practice issues” (Engstrom & Jones, 2007, p. 137). According to Dominelli (2004, p. 93) the current social work curricular needs to be reformulated

by making it more relevant to practicing in a world in which many social problems have become internationalised and the crossing of borders is an integral part of both the problem and what needs to be done to resolve it locally, nationally or internationally rather than treating its international dimension as a tangential add-on or afterthought.

Healy (1999, p. 23) state that the inclusion of international social work content in the social work curricular has been impacted by other “content
areas for time in the crowded curriculum and shaped by interests and expertise of faculty members and administrators at any point in time. There remain many social work curricula with no planned inclusion of international content.”

In 2004, the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) established The Katherine A. Kendall Institute for International Social Work Education in order “to foster the mainstream development of international content in social work education and to increase the cross-organizational collaboration in project development as well research and data collection” (Council on Social Work Education, 2010, p. 2). Infusing and integrating international issues in the social work curriculum is a major goal of the Katherine A. Kendall Institute and it maintains an international social work education library as well.

Even though the Global Standards of the social work profession was adopted in 2005, many countries still have their own educational systems and also “have their own systems for ensuring comparability of qualifications and sustainability to be licensed or registered to practice in a given country” (Lyons, 2006, p. 372). In the United States, states have different licensure requirements and in some cases social workers are required to sit for exams before they could practice. In 2005 the global standards for social work education and training was adopted detailing nine standards. According to Sewpaul and Jones (2005) the global standards include the following

1. Standards regarding the school’s core purpose or mission statement.
2. Standards regarding programme objectives and outcomes.
3. Standards with regard to programme curricula including fieldwork.
4. Standards with regard to core curricula.
5. Standards with regard to professional staff.
6. Standards with regard to social work students.
7. Standards with regard to structure, administration, governance and resources.
8. Standards with regard to cultural and ethnic diversity and gender inclusiveness.
9. Standards with regard to social work values and ethical codes of conduct.

In achieving the global standards universal guidelines were provided that different educational systems around the globe should inject into their educational programs as they prepare students for social work practice (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004). Notwithstanding this, Sewpaul and Jones (2004) note the geopolitics of many countries and the distinction between “development workers, child care workers, probation officers, community workers and youth worker” (p. 503) somehow makes it a little difficult to achieve the global standards. However, the underlying factors that the global standards bring to the fore are the impact of globalization especially on the social work curricular, collaborations by universities on the global level, introduction of national and internal standards (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004). The adoption of the global standards brought about the universalism of the social work profession as actions were taken not to “further fragment and de-professionalise” (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004, p. 504) the social work profession and this brought about the control mechanism that was lacking for years in some parts of the world (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004). The global standards inject “ideals that schools of social work should consistently aspire towards” (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004, p. 505) although criticisms
have been leveled against it that it promotes Western ideals or the U.S. “hegemony in social work education and practice” (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004, p. 505). Countries like Australia, New Zealand and Canada have established national standards and their own accreditation bodies that have enacted laws and rules that fit their locales as well. Remarkably, indeed the global standards took into consideration “country’s unique historical, political, cultural social and economic contexts” (Sewpaul & Jones, 2004, p. 507). The document also reiterates the profession’s values as it pertains to human rights, social justice and the empowerment of individuals and the essence of developing professional students who will be knowledgeable about the profession’s practice as well.

Social workers seek to promote social justice as they practice their profession. Thus social justice is enshrined in the NASW codes of ethics, therefore, social work students need to understand as well that there are many international treaties and laws that protect the rights of individuals and they are universal in nature. Remarkably, one such law is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that was adopted by the United Nations in 1948 to which member states that are signatories strive to interpret and maintain these rights (Lamin, 2007; Reichert, 2012). According to Reichert (2012, p. 447) the notion that human rights are universal and belong to all people is centrally connected to the principle of equality.” In 1979 the United Nations adopted the Convention on the Elimination of Violence against Women (CEDAW). The convention clearly states that there should be an end to all forms of discrimination against women, although the United States is yet to become a signatory to the convention (Reichert, 2012). Once a signatory, states should do all in
their power to “take appropriate measures in all fields” (Reichert, 2012, p. 448) to protect the rights of women. It will be important also for social work students to learn about the Convention on the Rights of the Child which is the “first legally binding international instrument to incorporate the full range of human rights-civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights” (UNICEF, Convention on the Rights of the Child, p. 1). The convention is designed to protect the rights of children across the world especially as child welfare is a popular area of practice in the United States. The Committee on the Rights of the Child monitors the implementation of the convention on the Rights of the Child by state parties (UNHCR, 2011). The International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination adopted and opened for signature and ratification by the General Assembly Resolution 2160 of December 1965 which came into effect on January 4, 1969 is also important for students to learn about. Social workers value equality and social justice and the tents of this convention is in synchronization with the profession’s codes of ethics and the codes of ethics of many countries are very similar (Banks, 2006).

2.7 Theory

Theory sets out the foundation for our understanding of current trends of practice or situations. A theory is “a group of related hypotheses, concepts and constructs, based on facts and observations that attempts to explain a particular phenomenon” (Barker, 1999, p. 485). Strong (1991, p. 204) state that “in an unending cycle of discovery and testing creates and evolves theories of ever increasing scope that can guide counseling practice.” Theories provide workable definitions of the world about us and they define what we see (Howe, 1987; Neukrug,
A theory is “an organized statement of ideas about the world” (Payne, 2005, p. 5). Rubin and Babbie (1993, p. 45) define theory as “a systematic explanation for the observed facts and probabilistic relationships that relate to a particular aspect of life: juvenile delinquency, for example, or perhaps social stratification, political revolution or the like.” According to Thompson (2010, p. 4) a “theory is an attempt to explain a phenomenon or set of phenomena by providing a structured set of concepts that has helped us to understand the subject matter concerned.” So (1990) emphatically stated that “without theories, social scientists would find it difficult to carry out empirical research” (p.11). Remarkably, “theories contribute in shaping researchers’ thinking process and sets out the groundwork for their analytical frameworks” (p.11). In some cases “a theory is a guide to the unknown that can help the theory user explore” (Forte, 2007, p. 17). So (1990) further states theories pave way for researchers to imbibe or follow new methodologies in carrying out their research. Importantly, So (1990) points out “theories are not static entities. They attack other theories, and they defend their own arguments” (p.12) and they could be modified. Over the years, theories have been modified to fit current trends. Thus valid theory can tell us not only what should be done, but also what can be done and the process by which it can be achieved (Forte, 2007; So, 1990). There are formal and informal theories. In the case of formal theory, they are “characterized by being explicit – that is, it generally makes its proposition open for discussion, challenge and verification. Informal theory is also generally implicit” (Thompson, 2010, p. 4).
Payne (2005) states that in social work, theory covers three different possibilities: models, perspectives and explanatory theory. Models describe what happens, practice deals with values or views of the worlds and explanatory theory accounts for reasons for action results (Payne, 2005). Thus “because social work is practical action in a complex world, a theory or perspective must offer a model of explicit guidance” (Payne, 2005, p. 6). Without any supportive theory, there is bound to be rejection of the workers’ practice (Beckett, 2006; Payne, 2005; Siporin, 1975). Therefore “people will inevitably reconstruct theories as they are affected by social changes” (Payne, 2005, p. 15).

Payne (2005) also explains that although social work borrows greatly from sociology and other fields their theories do not always incorporate social work values and practices. So it is very important for social work to dwell on its own theoretical base to justify their existence. Task-centered work is a case in point. Social workers also use psychodynamic theory as it gives them open minds, value free and non-judgmental dealings with their clients. Social workers use theories that fit their areas of practice and this has worked tremendously well over the years (Payne, 2005). A prominent example is systems theory. According to Howe (1987) “systems theory encouraged practitioners to see their clients and their problems as part of a whole” (p. 21). Thus social workers have come to realize that the behavior of each component, the individual, family and the environment would be “affected by, all other parts of the whole system” (Howe, 1987, p. 21). Greene (1999) concludes that not only does theory inform practitioners, the use of different theories offer contrasting viewpoints as well and this gives social workers options in their practice.
As of now there are no set of theory that are deemed international social work theories so the researcher will discuss the three main theories that have been used in the four decades to depict the world order or used to classify countries viz, modernization theory, dependency theory and world systems theory. The second segment of theories will be about learning, education and teaching as the research is about educational institutions and how knowledge is transferred to students. These include transformative learning theory, experiential learning theory, reflection and knowing in action, peer assisted leadership program, critical friend, and, peer coaching. The importance of curriculum development, field education and tenure are discussed as well. Healy (2012, p. 13) therefore states there is “a critical mass of theories that support international social work” and further states that “globally relevant interdisciplinary theories and concepts with social work knowledge and values” (Healy, 2012, p. 14) are used when exploring issues pertinent to international social work. This is exactly what the researcher has done.

2.7.1 Modernization Theory

Modernization theory as we know it today emerged from the 1950s and contrasted sharply with the evolutionary theories of the 1920s and 1930s (So, 1990). To some extent modernization theory was an intellectual response to the two World Wars; (World War 1 and World War 2) and represented an attempt to take an optimistic view about the future of mankind (So, 1990). According to So (1990) the modernization theory dominated the field of development in the 1950s greatly. The United States of America led the modernization move with the implementation of the Marshall Plan designed to rebuild war-torn Europe. It is important to note at this
juncture that at the end of the 2nd World War “the United States practically took over the responsibility of managing the affairs of the world” (So, 1990, p. 17). In opposition, was the Soviet Union consolidating her relationship in China and Korea and the looming disintegration of European colonial empires in Africa and Asia. The United States with growing interest in the Third World nations and with much ego not to sit idly by and loose them to the Communist bloc encouraged social scientists to study those nations and outline ways of promoting economic development (So, 1990).

The early forms of modernization theory had little to say about the further advancement of the already modern industrialized societies. It was assumed that these societies had arrived and that their past was of interest only to show the future path of those societies still on the road to modernity (Peet, 1999). In fact, some authors for example, Huntington (1968) argued that early modernization theory justified complacency i.e. the status quo at home and changes abroad. The theory had no image of the potentialities of modern future but only faith in the past. According to Huntington (1968) the process of modernization was characterized as revolutionary - the dramatic shift from tradition to modern. The principal aspects of modernization, “urbanization, industrialization, secularization, democratization, education, media participation did not occur in haphazard and unrelated fashion” (Huntington, 1968, p. 32). One of the first major studies that examined modernity is found in David McClelland’s book The Achieving Society published in 1961. According to McClelland (1961), the rise and fall of civilization is due to the individual values held by majority of the population in the society. McClelland (1961) argued that this is the personality characteristics, which he called the achievement motive, acquired through
socialization which makes a society open to economic and technological advancement.

The notion of the need for achievement as a psychological trait was developed by the American sociologist, Alex Inkles who formulated a set of aptitude questions known as the modernity scale “using a pool of 119 attitude items” (Inkeles, 1968, p. 346). During the 1960s and 1970s the modernity scale was widely used to measure the extent to which members of a given society holds what are considered to be modern values. Inkeles (1968) argued that to modernize is to develop and that a society cannot hope to develop until majority of the population holds modern values. Inkeles along with other structural functionalists argued that the creation of modern values could be the result of human planning and that particular social institutions are of extreme importance for their emergence and pertinent examples are the socialization which takes place in families, schools and factories. Proponents of modernization believed through modernization other parts of the world would catch up with the West (Calvert & Calvert, 2007; Foster-Carter, 1985; Harrison, 1988; McMichael, 2002; Midgley, 1997; Rostow, 1964; So, 1990).

Rostow (1960) contended that societies move through five stages, using the symbolism of an aero plane -Traditional, Pre-Take Off, Take-Off, Maturation and Mass Society - as these new values, systems and technology begin to transform a nation. Rostow (1960) believed that modern value systems like taxation, investments by banks and other financial institutions, finance from foreign trade and direct foreign capital investment could transform Third World countries into modern societies. Remarkably, Rostow’s stage theory was given credence and “occupied a leading
position in conventional development thinking” (Peet, 1999, p. 83). Thus Rostow’s assertion and stance soon found favor with U.S. policy makers who concluded that United States aiding Third World countries could raise them up to modernity (Peet, 1999; So, 1990). Modernization proponents argued that specific values, attitudes, or characteristics of individuals or cultures were responsible for impeding development. The goal of development was therefore to instill modern values and attitudes as well as behavior on the so-called backward sectors of a nation through education and assimilation (Peet, 1999; So, 1990).

Many third world countries adopted conspicuous consumptions in a bid to be modern as they devised their developmental plans on the United States model or standard. Thus development strategies based on modernization theory promoted initiatives in education (for teaching values) and the modeling of modern values (e.g., demonstration farms) as well as the transfer of technology and processes appropriate for modern systems (Klarén & Bossert, 1986; Peet, 1999). According to modernization theorists, these new values, systems and technology accumulate to create what might be now called a social “tipping point” where the entire nation emerges into the modern sector (Gladwell, 2002).

Indeed modernization theories did not work well in many developing countries as was expected. Instead of economic growth and greater social equality, the modernization of the third world societies produced several unexpected negative consequences such as the premature rise of consumption standards and the promotion of entrenched patriarchal societies as women were subjugated and oppressed by men (Scott, 1995). Women were seen as the “stolid guardians of customs” (Lerner, 1958,
p. 199). At the same time many new governments undertook colossal projects that had serious drain on their economies for the simple reason of trying to be modern and this landed their economies in precarious situations especially after the interest rates of money accrued from the International Monetary Fund (I.M.F.) and the World Bank catapulted from 2-3 percent to 20-22 percent (Lamin, 2007). Coupled with this was the fiscal retrenchment and effects of the neo-liberal market ideology (Midgley & Livermore, 2006), especially with the structural adjustment conditionalities (Lamin, 2007). According to Wai (2007) the implementation of the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) “marked the official beginning of the implementation of this global project as a new development strategy for African countries” (p. 84).

In conclusion, modernization proponents using both European evolutionary theory and that of functionalist approach believed that societies in the Third World were to follow change based on western models and imbibe western values as well in order to be deemed modern. Proponents of modernization perceived that “development would occur along similar trajectories in all societies, that what had been successful in moving European nations out of their feudal patterns would be similarly successful in Asia and Africa” (Healy, 2008, p. 54). Traditional values were bashed and deemed retrogressive.

2.7.2 Dependency Theory

In the mid-1950s dependency theory became the buzz word contrasting the modernization theory. The traditional modernization paradigm “saw developing countries as individual national economies at various stages in a process of catching up to the west” (Rowthbaum, 1991, p. 2). It is important to note that modernization
proponents were based in the West and deemed it necessary that for Third world countries to succeed they needed the guidance of the United States that was modern and advanced. On the other hand, the dependency school spoke in defense of the periphery or the developing world (Peet, 1999; McMichael, 2000; Scott, 1995; So, 1990). The origin and formation of the dependency theory began in Latin America where many countries were on the brink of economic stagnation after successful economic and infrastructural developments in the 1950s (Schuurman, 1993; So, 1990). At the time, Latin American countries were plagued with high incidences of “unemployment, inflation, currency devaluation, declining terms of trade and other economic problems” (So, 1990, p. 91). Schuurman (1993) adds on that a number of political events like the Cuban revolution, the military coup in Brazil and the U.S. invasion of the Dominican Republic played instrumental role in the birth of dependency theory.

The dependency theorists paid great attention to the vast differences in wealth between nations and provided reasons for the inequalities in poor nations (Midgley, 1997; Peet, 1999; Schuurman, 1993; So, 1990). The term dependency is used to emphasize the causal relationship between the development of core or metropolis societies and the under-development of the peripheral or satellite societies in the Third World (Dos Santos, 1970; Frank, 1979, 1986; Portes, 1997; Roxborough, 1979). Peripheral countries have low wages, poor standard of living, suppressive regimes and the lack of fundamental human rights. Conversely, the center, core or rich nations are developed and therefore exploit them for cheap labor, cheap minerals and fertile tropical soils (Frank, 1979). Frank (1979) observed that modern
underdevelopment is not historical, or based on stages but rather a product of capitalist development (So, 1990). The dependency theorists argue that underdevelopment in the periphery is as a direct result of development in the core countries “as the periphery is plundered of its surplus” (Schuurman, 1993, p. 5). Mixed with the Vietnam era rhetoric, dependency theory in the early 1970s became a potent brew as it placed Third World problems on core countries with specific reference to the United States (Andreés, 2002). Dependency theorists noted that the core nations need access to raw materials and larger markets for their finished products in a bid to maximize their wealth.

The intellectual origins of the dependency theory can be traced to Marx (So, 1990). In Capital, Marx (1962) convincingly pointed out that the importance of coercion for the establishment of “capitalism in Western Europe particularly in Britain” (Levkovsky, 1987, p. 60). It was Marx’s concern with the exploitation of the proletariat by the bourgeoisie which led the American economist Paul Baran in his book The Political Economy of Growth published in 1957 to see the underdevelopment in poor countries as caused by capitalism in the western world. Baran in his 1952 work stated that “Western capitalism failed to improve materially the lot of the people inhabiting most backward areas” (p. 91). Baran (1952) states that though some traditional societies maintained servitude of others and class distinction as well it was the introduction of capitalism and the “imposition of business mores” (p. 92) that made injustices in traditional societies more glaring. Capitalism introduced monopolistic businesses as there were very little competition between enterprises that
controlled output and prices (Wilber & Weaver, 1975). Thus the capitalist world economy relies on the periphery in order to run smoothly (Wallerstein, 1979).

Prior to Baran was Rosa Luxemburg in her classical work *The Accumulation of Capital* first published in 1913 six years before her death in 1919. Luxemburg in her work gave more attention to the Third World which Marx had failed to do (Harrison, 1988). Thus according to Luxemburg for the two-class system to thrive, accumulation of capital was only possible in the third market (Tarbuck, 1972), “without it, the system would collapse” (p. 21). Luxemburg (1972) describes the situation that “capital accumulation progresses and expands at the expense of non-strata and countries, squeezing them out at an ever faster rate” (p. 145).

Thus, by the late 1950s dependency theory was creating the desired impact as it influenced policies in Latin America (Foster-Carter, 1985). Without question, the most important popularizer of the dependency theory was André Gunder Frank who began to study and write about development problems in Latin America in the late 1950s and early 1960s (Midgley, 1995; Schuurman, 1993; Scott, 1995; So, 1990). Frank published widely in English and he also simplified many of the issues raised by the dependency group. It is important to note that, “Frank was both polemic and outspoken in his arguments” (Schuurman, 1993, p. 5) and this made him outstanding.

According to the dependency theorists, there are many agents that promote the dependency situation of periphery countries on core countries. Countries are seen as part of a global system dominated by a capitalist economic network (Frank, 1979; Harrison, 1988; Rodney, 1972; Schuurman, 1993). Roxborough (1979) pointed out that the articulation of modes of production of the underdeveloped economies within
the world economic system may result in the transfer of economic resources from the periphery to the center and this articulation may give rise to various blocking mechanisms which hold back or distort the economies of the periphery thereby preventing an allocation of resources which will produce economic growth. Core countries over the years have established multinational corporations that serve as sources of core power within the periphery. In considering the dependency relationship between countries, it is not only necessary to have the rich country physically dominating the poor country. All that is needed is for the elites or the leaders of the poor countries to hold attitudes, values and interests that are consistent with those in the rich countries. André Gunder Frank gave these elites the name Lumpen Bourgeoisie and he stated that they were the major instruments of dependency relation (Frank, 1979).

Dependency theorists can be divided into two schools. The first school (radical in nature) has authors such as Paul Baran, André Gunder Frank, Theotonio Dos Santos and Samir Amin, who argued that “underdevelopment is not a phase but a permanent and inescapable condition” (Roberts & Hite, 2000, p.13). These authors believed that it was a daunting or Herculean task for poorer nations to change the situation but by failing to provide an appropriate design or offer feasible solutions to the dependency problem this group has been criticized greatly over the years. The second school which gives a milder version of the dependency theory postulates that in spite of the prevailing poor circumstances in the Third World, some countries have managed to develop to some extent (Roberts & Hite, 2000). The “Asian tigers” for
instance launched successful industrialization projects and in Brazil, the “Brazilian miracle” proved efficacious (Portes, 1997).

Dependency theory, as a theory based on materialist and structuralist theories, has been criticized for placing too much emphasis on material and economic factors. The structuralists justify the partial development that occurs in periphery countries to demonstrate that influence of the core has not been uniform as the four Asian Tigers have developed tremendously over the years. A criticism of the radical dependency theorists is their failure to explain the participation of non-capitalist countries such as the Soviet Union in the development of poor countries and the extent to which they promoted their own form of dependency and underdevelopment in those countries.

It is important to note that there are many areas of development in which dependency plays pivotal role. Some of these are aid dependency, technological dependency, dependency on foreign capital investment and so forth. In all these areas, developing countries are made to depend on the developed countries. In this vein, people in the developing world will benefit tremendously from international social workers in harnessing their basic needs especially after the structural adjustment conditionalities were introduced by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and The World Bank in the 1980s. It is now estimated that one fifth of the world’s population now lives in poverty. According to Wolfensohn (2001), half the world’s population lives on less than $2 a day, and 80 percent of the global population has only 20 percent of the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and internally with vast differences between the rich and the poor. With the globalization of economies, using neoliberal model, poverty has been globalized. Thus the structural adjustment
conditionalities and the privatization of important state infrastructures have also resulted in the casualisation and feminization of certain labor sector resulting in tensions within the family for women as gender relations get reconfigured (Rai, 1998). Dependency theory became the harbinger of the World Systems theory.

2.7.3 World Systems Theory

It is believed that Fernand Braudel was first to propose the notion of a world system to understand the Mediterranean regime at the early modern times (Barradas, 2000; So, 1990). Peet (1999, p. 112) described Braudel as “the most famous of the school’s second generation scholars, was particularly interested in structural limitations on material and economic life.” The concept was later popularized by Immanuel Wallerstein who observed that there was a mode of production, based on the commodification of labor in a ceaseless accumulation of capitalist world system (Peet, 1999). It is important to note, that Wallerstein was greatly influenced by the “neo-Marxist literature of development” (So, 1990, p. 171). Wallerstein (1979) observed that capitalism and the world economy were obverse sides of the same coin. Wallerstein developed this framework to understand the historical changes involved in the rise of the modern world. Capitalism was prominent in the modern world system evident by the crisis of the feudal system and the rise of Western Europe to world supremacy between 1450 and 1670.

Thus before the sixteen century when Western Europe embarked on wide capitalist development “feudalism” dominated society as a whole. Wallerstein argued that Europe moved towards the establishment of a capitalist world economy so as to ensure flourishing economic growth. With the demise of the feudal system, the world
economic system emerged (Halsall, 1997). The world economic system encompassed the world as a whole, transcending national or political boundaries (Francis, 2000; Halsall, 1987).

According to Wallerstein (1979) the new economic system was completely different from the early empire systems being that it was not a single political unit with authoritative powers to monopolize trade but based on an international division of labor that connected one country to the other. Wallerstein therefore put the world economy into four categories namely, core, semi-periphery, periphery and external and each of these categories effectively described the region’s position within the world economy (Francis, 2000; Midgley, 1997; Peet, 1999; Halsall, 1987). The core regions have benefited and continue to benefit most from the capitalist world economy (Wallerstein, 1979). During the period under review, countries like England, France, and Holland developed as the first core regions. The core countries had similar characteristics such as extensive bureaucracies and were “militarily powerful” (Peet, 1999, p. 113). Therefore local, bourgeoisie exerted firm control over international commerce and extracted capital surpluses as well. Halsall (1997) stated that poor peasants moved to the big cities in a desperate bid to survive by providing cheap labor.

Within the periphery, central governments were weak to exert full power within, their sovereign states as they were controlled by external authorities. The periphery exported their raw materials to the core at mediocre prices and relied on coercive labor practices to get a regular supply of products. For instance, Polish kings forced their subjects to work assiduously in order to export wheat to the rest of
Europe (Halsall, 1997). Between the core and periphery were the semi-peripheries, these “states functioned to prevent political polarization in the world system” (Peet, 1999, p. 113). According to Wallerstein (1974), the semi-peripheries were exploited by the core, but as in the case of the American empires of Spain and Portugal, often were exploiters of peripheries themselves (Halsall, 1997). Spain for example imported silver and gold from its American colonies and this was largely obtained through coercion or surprise and attacks. Remarkably, most of the species accrued went to paying for manufactured goods from the core countries rather than encouraging the formation of strong domestic manufacturing sector. Wallerstein (1974) defined his fourth category as the External Areas, these areas remained outside the modern world economy Russia before the demise of the communist state was a perfect example. Internal commerce remained more important to Russia than with outside regions. Also, the considerable power of the Russian state helped regulate the economy and this greatly limited foreign commercial influence (Halsall, 1997).

Wallerstein divided the history of the capitalist world system into four stages: Stages 1 and 2 look at the rise of the modern world system from 1450 – 1670; this was when the Hapsburg Empire failed to transform the emerging world economy into a world empire and lord over them. The existing western European states were determined as well to make their mark within the new world and most of these states made frantic moves to consolidate their internal policies by beefing up their armies to withstand the test of time. Through bureaucratization, the power of the king was maintained and this was done through the collection of taxes and this further made the state strong financially. At the end of this period, the monarch had become the key of
authority and instituted what was known as “absolute monarch.” In a bid to stamp their authority, leaders in the new capitalist system expelled minorities who were seen as threats especially capitalist groups, without deep rooted local ties, the Jews in England, Spain and France were expunged and their expunction gave rise to the “absolute monarch.” Similarly, Protestants who were merchants in Catholic countries faced similar reprisal. On a whole, “the catholic church, a trans-national institution, found the development of capitalism and the strengthening of the state threatening” (Halsall, 1997, p. 4). By 1640, northwestern European states were able to break the ceiling glass and secured their positions as core states in the emerging world economy. During this period, workers in Europe experienced a dramatic fall in wages. This wage fall characterized most European centers of capitalism with the exception of few cities in north and central Italy where workers formed strong politico-economic groups. Generally, the resistance of workers posed a barrier for the employers to accumulate the large surplus necessary for the advancement of capitalism. During this same period employers in other parts of Europe profited from the wage lag by accumulating large surpluses for investment and maintaining stronghold in the world economy.

Stages 3 and 4 also known as the 18th century and beyond brought in a shift from agricultural capitalism to industrial capitalism where in the European states participated actively in exploration for the exploitation of new markets around the world. During this period the trade along the Indian Ocean was absorbed into the expanding European world system. In the late 19th century Latin American countries achieved political independence and they subsequently entered the peripheral zone in
the world economy. By the nineteenth century Asia and Africa entered the world system in the peripheral zone. The inclusion of Africa and Asia continents increased the volume of trade and also an increase in surpluses which facilitated way for the U.S. and Germany to enhance their core status. By the 1700s England was Europe’s leading industrial producer as well as the leader in agricultural production and by 1900 the English population shifted toward manufacturing. Further also, many core countries encouraged countries in the peripheral and semi-peripheral zones to open industries so that they could sell machines to these regions (Halsall, 1997).

As envisioned by Wallerstein in his three-volumes, The Modern World System – the first volume of which was published in 1974 – marked the birth of sub-discipline in the USA, noted that the world economic system further increased the disparity between the core and other countries in the world. In 1984 and 1989 he published the two other volumes in which he provided succinct descriptions of the world system. Through the world system theory, Wallerstein attempted to explain why modernization had such wide ranging and different effects on the world. Wallerstein (1974, 1984 & 1989), shows how political and economic conditions after the break down of feudalism transformed northwestern Europe into the predominant commercial, political and military power. Although in functioning, the world economy created larger disparities between the various types of economies, however, the relationship between the core and its periphery and semi-periphery remained relatively constant (Halsall, 1997). Over the years, technological advantages have been able to precipitate changes in some peripheral or semi-peripheral areas, places like Singapore, Taiwan and Brazil as glaring examples. However, Wallerstein asserts
that an analysis of the history of the capitalist world shows that it has brought about a skewed development in which economic and other disparities between sections of the world economy have increased rather than provided prosperity for all.

2.8 Theories about Learning, Education and Teaching

The importance of learning theories was brought to the fore by behavioralist J. B. Watson noting that learning was based on “observable behavior” (Ashford, LeCroy & Lortie, 2006, p. 79). Watson stressed that at birth a person was a clean slate and that people learn behaviors from observing others in society. Watson believed that learning would take place based on the proper experiences of the individual (Ashford et al, 2006). Watson known as the “father of behaviorism, a learning theory that is based on observable behavior” (Ashford et al, 2006, p. 79) was also the proponent of classical conditioning. On the other hand, Albert Bandura a social learning theorist believed that “people can process information to actively influence how the environment controls them” (Ashford et al, 2006, p. 80). The underlying principle of the social learning theory is that children model behavior in the development of their personalities (Ashford et al, 2006). The theory postulates the combination of learning principles with that of “cognitive processes plus the effects of observational learning to explain behavior” (Ashford et al, 2006, p. 80). For Bandura, the learner makes a conscious decision to learn and the learner becomes an active part of the learning process as a whole (Walker, Crawford & Parker, 2008).

Thus as adults many people’s behaviors are somehow shaped by their cultural values, and other “expectations continue to act as a filter for understanding life (Cranton, 2006, p. 19). Erikson and Piaget also wrote extensively about childhood
development which they believed was a progressional thing. So in adulthood many students already have traditional ways of doing things and somehow glued to their value systems with little room for change. As adult learners it is somehow implicit that previously held assumptions are questioned (Chapman, 2007; Mezirow, 1978), hence the theory of transformative learning.

2.8.1 Transformative Learning Theory

As adults it becomes somehow paramount to examine our experiences and expectations “when people critically examine their habitual expectations, revise them and act on the revised point of view transformative learning occurs” (Cranton, 2006, p. 19). Transformative learning theory has been credited to the American educationist Jack Mezirow who has published extensively on it (1978, 2000, and 2009). Mezirow (2009, p. 22) defines transformative learning “as learning that transforms problematic frames of reference to make them more inclusive, discriminating, reflective, open, and emotionally able to change.” Mezirow further states that “learning occurs in four ways: by elaborating existing meaning schemes, learning new meaning schemes, transforming meaning schemes, and transforming meaning perspectives” (p. 22). As adults Mezirow (2000, 2009) believes that we experience a shift in our perceptions of the world. According to Jones (2009, p. 10) “the structures of meaning articulated by Mezirow are significant and of particular interest to social work educators because our sense of self, our values and beliefs are firmly grounded in these frames of reference.” Many social work educators are firmly grounded in their frame of references and it becomes an aberration for them to move away from their world view, interest area or the population of interest and in many cases “these meaning
perspectives are usually underpinned by sets of unquestioned assumptions about the way the world is” (Jones, 2009, p. 10). In many cases our experiences play a pivotal role in the way we construct meaning and this is validated “through interaction and communication with others” (Cranton, 2006, p. 23). As learning is a lifelong process transformative learning is very useful in contemporary societies especially those that “share democratic values” (Mezirow, 2006, p. 8). Drawing from the work of Habermas (1984) that defined the two domains of learning: instrumental learning and communicative learning, Mezirow was able to conceptualize transformative learning as a whole. Mezirow (2000) noted that transformative learning helps to change our frame of reference and although transformative learning focuses on adult learning “its primary audience is adult educators” (Mezirow, 2009, p. 21).

2.8.2 Experiential Learning Theory

Experiential learning has been credited to the educational philosopher John Dewey who emphasized the importance or human right as key to relationship within societies (Goldstein, 2000). According to Kolb (1984) experiential learning theory “offers the foundation for an approach to education and learning as a lifelong process” (p. 3). Experiential learning paves way for the revitalization of the university curriculum “to cope with many of the changes facing higher education today” (p. 4). Lee (1990) states that a theory can only be appropriate when an educator effectively uses it. Thus the gap between what theory can do to explain the practitioner’s reality and what he or she needs to know may be called the “experiential learning gap” (p.2). The practitioner is concerned with the situations, which involves many variables that no general theory can accommodate and therefore learning from experience becomes
vital (Argyris & Schon, 1978). Kolb’s model of learning is important as it “ensures
critical and reflective goal-directed action and evaluation of the consequences of the
action” (Walker, Crawford & Parker, 2008, p. 44). Lee (1990) notes that unless
assistance is sought from someone else, preferably a peer partner there is little
improvement to take place as learning is a lifelong process.

Goldstein (2000, p. 7) notes that “experiential learning is a humanistic and
democratic model of education that prepares learners to respect, respond to, and find
meaning in the impelling life experiences of their clients.” Further also, “experiential
learning is directly related to immediate goals and needs” (Bogo & Vayda, 1987, p.
2), therefore the learner becomes motivated to work on the problem and find solutions
(Bogo & Vayda, 1987).

2.8.3 Reflection and Knowing-in-Action

Theoretical underpinnings of reflective practice and teaching are most often
attributed to a twentieth century scholar, John Dewey (Kolb, 1984; Mezirow, 2009;
Nichols, 2002). Dewey (1933) contrasted routine action and that of reflective practice
in the area of teaching which is usually static and somehow unresponsive to changes.
Dewey (1933) believed that based on habitual practices, tradition and by institutional
expectations routine action takes place. Conversely, reflective action involves the
desire to “engage in constant self- appraisal and development” (Pollard, 2005, p. 13).

Reflection is a micro activity and it could be regarded as a reference to the
many ways in which people can better comprehend their professional practice.
Reflection allows individuals to interrogate their professional practices and thereby
seek the required enthusiasm to improve their practice (Jay, 2003; Pollard, 2005;
Schon, 1987). Therefore reflective practice becomes “a dialogue of thinking and doing through which I become more skillful” (Schon, 1987, p. 31). Thus, “expert teachers continually reflect on how they might even teach better” (Briggs, 2003, p. 6).

Schon (1987) defined reflection as knowing in action and further notes it is through reflection that a practitioner will utilize his or her repertoire of understandings, images, and actions to reframe a troubling situation so that problem solving actions are stimulated (Schon, 1987). What distinguishes knowing-in-action from other kinds of reflection is the immediate significance for action (Schon, 1994). According to Brockbank and McGill (1998) Schon conceptualized this idea by looking at university education that was designed to train students to enter into professional practice.

For Schon much of university learning is based on propositional learning, learning about concepts and ideas and just this on its own was limited (Brockbank & McGill, 1998). Indeed “propositional knowledge is limited because it does not take into account the realities of professional life and practice” (Brockbank & McGill, 1998, p. 71). On many occasions professionals ignore problem setting. Problem setting is a process in which we interactively, name the things to which we will attend and frame the context in which we will attend to them. What distinguishes reflection-in-action from other kinds of reflection is the immediate significance for action (Schon, 1994).

However, professors are so engrossed in publishing articles for reasons like gaining tenure and therefore find it difficult to reflect on their teaching skills or devise new courses. Some scholars over the years have advanced that the complexities of
their roles, prohibit professors from reflecting on their actions, learning new insights and adapting their future behaviors (Barnett, 1987). Professors need opportunities for dialogue so that they can critically reflect on their habitual teaching practices. In real terms, professors often work in isolation, behind closed door and hardly any time to share their experiences with colleagues (Robertson & Allan, 1999; Poskitt, 1995). If they do, they seldom discuss issues pertinent to improving their teaching styles or techniques. Engaging in substantive discussions about teaching and the classroom situation as a whole develops the personal and interpersonal skills of professors.

2.8.4 Peer Assisted Leadership Program

Thus, through peer assisted leadership programs, professors can observe each other and apply their knowledge of teaching practices by reflecting on their own experiences. Reflection becomes a think through process; the reflecting people do after an event and at times discuss the incidents with colleagues (Schon, 1983). In many instances, people recount their experiences but do not reflect at all. Reflection allows individuals to think about and sort difficulties, problems and errors they make whilst performing their professional duties. Through reflection professionals can surface and criticize the tacit understanding that usually grows around their repetitive experiences and practices of the profession. When practitioners reflect in and on their practices, the possible objects of their reflections are as varied as the kinds of phenomena before them and the systems of knowing-in-practice which they bring to then (Schon, 1983). Through reflection the practitioner will experiment new ideas and this will bring in new understanding of the new phenomena and then change in the situation.
Also with vicarious experience, professors will make connections between theories and practice (Barnett, 1987; Robertson, 1987). The peer assisted leadership process and experiential learning was a research study of successful principals conducted at the Far West Laboratory for Educational and Research and development now WestEd after it merged with the Southwest Regional Educational Laboratory (WestEd, 2011). Using qualitative, anthropological methods, the principals spent much of two months at school sites “shadowing” and conducting reflective interviews with each other. Principals who participated in the program were happy to describe their actions during reflective interviews (Barnett, 1987; Robertson, 1997). Besides, they pointed out that their isolation from other administrators at similar level prohibited them from sharing their experiences (Barnett, 1987; Robertson & Allan, 1999).

Barnett (1987) points out that professional partnership allows reflection on past actions allowing professors to evaluate their actions with the goals and values they espoused to be important. Bailey (1987) notes when groups are established members have the opportunity for informal discussions than can be beneficial. A group once successfully established might expect a lifespan of years meeting at least twice during the quarter. Professional development has to be continuous and developmental over time, as members, would need to learn new skills and subsequently apply them (Robertson & Allan, 1999). When partnerships are established, professors can have the opportunity of observing each other, which is called shadowing (Robertson, 1997). In this situation, professors are taught the skills of quality observation, which gives descriptive accounts of behavior devoid of
judgments or interpretations (Robertson, 1997) or criticism (Barnett, 1987). The whole process should create an atmosphere of trust (Barnett, 1987; Costa & Kallick, 1993) openness and pave way for self-growth (Barnett, 1987). Lee (1991, cited in Robertson, 1995) found that principals and teachers interviewing and questioning each other about their work increase their professional growth. Further also, peer-assisted partnership increase mutual trust amongst practitioners and this can provide fertile grounds for candid exchanges of ideas, deep reflection, and self-analysis.

2.8.5 Critical Friend

According to Wong and Nicotera (2003) “peer coaching began in the early 1980s as a strategy to improve the degree of implementation of new curriculum and instructional techniques.” The terminology critical friend has been credited to Costa and Kallick way back in 1993 as they described a critical friend as “a trusted person who asks provocative questions, provides data to be examined through another lens, and offers critiques of a person’s work as a friend” (Costa & Kallick, 1993, p. 50). In many instances “critique often has negative connotations, it is not necessarily so” (Nelson, 2008, p. 27). A critical friend is very useful for school leaders as “school leaders have a pivotal role in school improvement” (Swaffield, 2004, p. 267). The critical friendship relationship “is a versatile form of external support for school colleagues carrying out leadership functions” (Swaffield, 2004, p. 268). With this, interviews become very primordial as they are lubricants for professional partnership development. The context interview for instance is done for partners to become thoroughly familiar with the context in which their partners were conducting their actions (Robertson, 1997). As a critical friend, the partner should listen well, clarifying
ideas and encouraging specificity. The critical friend should “offer value judgments only upon the request from the learner” (Costa & Kallick, 1993, p. 50). Following the context interview is reflective interviewing which provides opportunities for reflection and judgment in the hands of the person questioned (Robertson, 1997). Reflective interviewing is a questioning modus that provides opportunities for the questioned person “to explore his or her knowledge, skills, experiences, attitudes, beliefs and values” (Robertson, 1999, p. 1). In this situation, the questioning technique leaves the power for reflection and judgment in the hands of the person being questioned. Goal setting sessions and evaluative feedback sessions are held to make the process complete. Feedback is very necessary as it provides praise and serves as a lens that helps to evaluate work. In theatre and dance good criticism maintains and evaluates standards of performance (Costa & Kallick, 1993) but this has been absent in universities although they have goals of maintaining performance in research, teaching and service. Hence, Costa & Kallick (1993) point out introducing the role of critical friends into the layers of an educational system will build a greater capacity. Swafffield (2004a) state that the role of a counselor is different from that of a critical friend as counselors focuses on the individual growth taking into consideration his or her feeling. In the case of a critical friend, organizational matters come to the fore that is pertinent to “outcomes, effects and implications for many different people, as well as the personal well-being of individuals” (Swafffield, 2004a, p. 4).

2.8.6 Peer Coaching

Showers and Joyce (1996) define coaching as “when a pair of teachers observes each other, the one teaching is the ‘coach’ and the one observing is the ‘coached’
Peer coaching can be used as a mechanism to increase the implementation of training. Showers and Joyce (1996) state that peer coaching helps professionals to plan together, pool their experiences and practice new skills, which are seldom achieved individually. Coaching helps “teachers implement new teaching strategies” (Showers & Joyce, 1996, p.14) and a university can benefit greatly if professors are organized into peer teams. According to Garmston et al. (1993, cited in Showers & Joyce, 1996) collegial coaching and cognitive coaching aim more at improving existing practices relevant to professionals. Through cognitive coaching professors can establish and maintain trust, facilitate mutual learning and move toward greater autonomy whilst simultaneously acting interdependently. Cognitive coaching makes professors reflective about their classroom practice collaborate with their colleagues and subsequently improve their teaching skills in order to better meet the needs of students. The main essence of peer coaching is to provide positive feedback to professors especially if they regularly receive negative comments from students on teaching evaluations.

According to Ellinger and Bostrom (1999), coaches and mentors need to possess interviewing skills so that they can ask open-ended, closed and reflective questions to their peers or protégé so as to encourage them to think, or rethink what they may not have considered previously. Coaches become enablers of learning process with the intention of helping protégés and novices learn and develop (Ellinger & Bostrom, 1999). Peer coaching enables teachers and leaders to learn from one another while planning instructions or watching each other works with students or teachers respectively. For instance, teachers involved in coaching think together about the learning outcomes for students (Shower & Joyce, 1996). Joyce and Showers (1982)
called teachers working together in a mutual relationship as coaching and argue that teachers can reduce their isolation when they are involved in peer coaching. Therefore, peer coaching provides a forum in which teachers can experiment with and discuss teaching with an interested partner. Without collegial partnership teachers will find themselves in a lake of uncertainty. Robertson (1995) notes that the uncertainty and isolation from colleagues can often lead to teachers “experiencing a lack of confidence in their abilities” (p. 55).

Peer coaching teams should focus on planning and developing curriculum and at the same time give instructions that could enhance shared vision (Showers & Joyce, 1996). Also the coaching should be devoid of “supervisory evaluative comments” (Showers & Joyce, 1996, p.15). Professionals are at times very busy and do not engage in reflection although it is very important to do so. Robertson (1999) points out that continuous pressure and support will help improve professional development. Thus pressure and support can be achieved through peer coaching (Robertson, 1999). Indeed, setting up a peer group is a “major source of support in management development” (Bailey, 1987, p. 50), and it creates an avenue for teachers to resolve their conflicts and feel more confident, as professional collaboration is of tremendous importance (Robertson & Allan, 1999). Bailey (1987) noted that setting up a peer group is a strong pillar in enhancing management and development as professional can meet together focusing on career development. With the setting up of professional partnership, Bailey (1987) argues that partners can continue to help each other to deal with specific managerial problems. In specific terms, teachers or professors who apply peer coaching will meet with colleagues in order to plan effective teaching strategies, review each
other’s syllabi and text books, review exam questions in order to ascertain if they are appropriate, attend classes to observe the professor’s teaching goals, style and methodology. In such a case the peer partner serves “as “teaching consultant” in a shared reciprocal relationship” (Meyer & Gray, 1996, p. 1).

2.8.7 Curriculum Development and Design

Moving away from the learning theories; is the curricula design and how it impacts student learning. Defining a curriculum could be difficult (Chapman, 2007). According to Chapman (2007, p. 112) the word curriculum

conjures up all sorts of notions from the vision of an educated adult to the socio-political agendas of those in power over those who are not power, to direct instruction to be covered by a particular teacher is a particular classroom on a given day.

The curriculum is described metaphorically as a running path students are expected to follow (Henderson & Hawthorne, 2000). Any curriculum should have a beginning and an end and a class is always expected to complete the syllabus which is a contract. Chapman (2007, p. 113) notes “the curriculum can be defined as a means to an end or as the end itself.” Therefore, planning a course requires a vivid “understanding of the subject matter” (Posner & Rudnitsky, 2001, p. 5) and the students should be the focal point at every stage of the planning process in designing a curriculum (Posner & Rudnitsky, 2001). There has been marked increase in the diversity of students in a given class and as such Posner and Rudnitsky (2001) state instructors should consider diversity as they plan new courses and “these include learning styles, cultural and language backgrounds, gender, social class, and an
enormous spectrum of special needs” (p. 5). Posner (2004) state the curriculum may mean differently to people “some claim that a curriculum is the content, standards, or objectives for which schools hold students accountable.” Others claim that a curriculum is the set of instructional strategies teachers plan to use (p. 5). Posner goes on to state there are five concurrent curricula namely the official curriculum, the operational curriculum, the hidden curriculum, the null curriculum and the extra curriculum.

According to Posner (2004) the official curriculum is written documented and provides the necessary guides instructors follow and gives the outline of the course and the standards expected including the objectives of the course as a whole. The second is the operational curriculum, this deals with what the instructor teaches and the focus is relayed to the students a kind emphasis. The Third, the hidden curriculum refers to the values and norms the school upholds and tries to imbibe in the students. The fourth, the null curriculum refers to areas not taught and why they are ignored. The fifth is the extra curriculum, which deals with “planned experiences outside of the school subjects” (p. 13). Posner, (2005) also outlines seven common concepts of curriculum which are as follows 1) Scope and Sequence, 2) Syllabus, 3) Content Outline, 4) Standards, 5) Textbooks, 6) Course of Study, 7) Planned Experience. According to Posner (2005) the scope and sequence deals with intended learning outcomes. The syllabus is a plan for the course as a whole and it “includes the goals and/or rationale for the course, topic covered, resources used, assignments given, and evaluation strategies recommended” (p. 6). The course outline could be equated to the instruction and curriculum plan. Standards describe what the students are to do and chronicle the processes towards the learning outcomes but importantly these are not included as specific teaching outcomes.
Posner’s concept of textbooks makes an important focus on the contemporary textbooks which include “teacher guide, student study guides or workbooks, tests, overhead projection masters, laboratory kits, and supplementary instructional materials” (p. 11). The course of study details the number of courses students are to complete and the planned experiences entails the entire experiences students encounter in doing activities planned by the school.

For this study, the curriculum will refer to the 2008 EPAS and how the accredited institutions prepare their MSW students especially in the area of international social work. The role of professors is diverse these days and importantly indeed not only are they “expected to research, gain grants, prepare academic papers and contribute to scholarship, but to teach and develop the curriculum” (Nichols, 2002, p. 9). In many cases new courses are developed in order to meet the changing needs within the subject area, accreditation conditions (Nichols, 2002) and to prepare students with the knowledge base, skills and experience to compete in the job market. In doing so, “any new course should aim to change the way students think about issues, concepts, facts and principles” (Nichols, 2002, p. 59).

According to Healy (2004) with a curriculum in place tremendous benefits will be accrued from the “vast potential content arena known as “international” (p. 26), but this is not the case as individual faculty design areas they are interested in “as international content has been slow to develop” (Healy, 2004, p. 27).

Thus, the Council on Social Work Education sets the standards for the accreditation of institutions therefore has the “greatest potential to influence curriculum
in any area, including international” (Healy, 1999, p. 19). But since the formation of CSWE and the publication of the Curriculum Policy Statements (CPS) international social work contents have not been defined clearly as “essential in the education of professional social workers in the United States” (Healy, 1999, p. 23) and “international social work is an important part of the curriculum development of social work and the literature concerns fieldwork, research and collaboration” (Razack, 2009, p. 11).

Generally what prevails is individual programs developing courses based on the interest of a particular faculty member and usually these courses compete with “many content areas for time in a crowded curriculum” (Healy, 1999, p. 23). Healy (2004, p. 23) asserts that there are “many social work curricula with no planned inclusion of international content.” Some schools have detailed international social work contents and some are sparse (Healy, 2004). In some cases the international contents are introduced at the master’s level which means that students with the completion of their bachelor’s degree in social work may not have the necessary foundation that could make them ready for international social work jargons, theoretical underpinnings or knowledge pertinent to international social work.

Although it is CSWE that draws part of the master’s degree curricula since 1967 as no accreditation standards existed before that especially in the number of concentrations to be offered by programs (Markward, 1999), classroom teachers continue to teach what they perceive as “appropriate for the preparation of students for professional practice in the field” (Goldstein, 2001, p. 45). To compound the problem of the monolithic structure of this, “social agencies and field centers call on schools to produce armed with similarly aligned skills and technique for direct practice”
According to Markham (1999) curriculum standards were established in 1982 and this required curriculum content in the foundation year of MSW to be congruent with the content that was taught at the bachelor’s level so as to prepare students for the licensure after the successful completion of their degree.

2.8.7 (a) 2008 Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS)

In April 2008, the Council on Social Work Education revised the Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS). The 2008 EPAS is completely different from the 2001 version as it outlines 10 core competencies and 41 practice behaviors that social work institutions should incorporate in their BSW and MSW programs. The ten core competencies guide social work professional practice and identity as a professional social worker, application of ethical principles to guide professional practice. The 2008 EPAS “represents a distinctly new approach to the design of social work curricula” (Holloway, Black, Hoffman & Pierce, 2008, p. 1) and CSWE uses EPAS to accredit baccalaureate and master’s level social work programs and programs are reaffirmed after meeting the criteria outlined (Holloway, Black, Hoffman & Pierce, 2008; Meyer-Adams, Potts, Koob, Dorsey, & Rosales, 2011). The new educational policy describes “four features of an integrated curriculum design: (1) program mission and goals; (2) explicit curriculum; (3) implicit curriculum; and (4) assessment.

The 2008 EPAS does not mandate programs to provide more of academic content and therefore “loosens expectations regarding curriculum form or structure. Instead it introduces the notion of requisite student competencies comprised of
interrelated practice behaviors as the organizing principle for curriculum design” (Holloway, Black, Hoffman & Pierce, 2008, p. 1). Competency based education is notably paramount and therefore “an outcome assessment approach to curriculum design” (Petracchi & Zastrow, 2010, p. 131). The 2008 EPAS provides the “threshold for professional social work competence” (Petracchi & Zastrow, 2010, p. 358), and the curriculum outlines four curriculum areas viz: a) program mission and goals; b) explicit curriculum, including field education; c) implicit curriculum; and the assessment. The “Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards are conceptually linked” (CSWE, 2008, p.1).

The program’s mission addresses the mission and goals of the program and it has the values that the social work profession upholds in providing services to people and also the context is outlined. The explicit curriculum provides details of the curriculum and the professional nature of the social work profession. This feature constitutes core competencies bringing competency-based education and it differentiates the curriculum design for the baccalaureate and master’s degrees (Holloway, 2008). The BSW curriculum prepares its graduates for generalist practices through mastery of core competencies. The MSW curriculum prepares it “graduates for advanced practice through mastery of core competencies augmented by knowledge and practice behaviors specific to a concentration” (CSWE, 2008, p. 3). Each of the EPAS competencies under the explicit curriculum numbered Educational Policy 2.1.1 to Educational Policy 2.1.10 “has a bold descriptor which is elaborated in one or two sentences appearing directly below each descriptor” (Holloway et al, 2010). At the bachelor’s level or the first year of the master’s program, schools are expected to
provide students with practice behaviors that are associated with the ten core competencies. Then during the second year of the master’s program which is dubbed the concentration phase, “programs are expected to apply each of the ten core competencies by augmenting each with knowledge and practice behaviors specific to the area of advanced practice that constitute their concentration” (Lonner, Riches, & Madsen, 2008, p. 1). Under the explicit curriculum diversity issues is one of the core competencies.

Educational Policy 2.1.4 Engage diversity and difference in practice.

Social workers understand how diversity characterizes and shapes the human experience and is crucial to the formation of identity. The dimensions of diversity are understood as the intersectionality of multiple factors including age, class, color, culture, disability, ethnicity, gender identity and expression, immigration status, political ideology, race religion, sex and sexual orientation (CSWE EPAS, 2008).

The 2008 EPAS has the implicit curriculum feature and this distinction is of primordial importance as the “implicit curriculum is defined as the educational environment in which the explicit curriculum is delivered” (Holloway, 2008, p. 1). The use of the nomenclature, implicit curriculum is a new domain introduced in the 2008 EPAS very different from the 2001 EPAS (Holloway, 2008; Petracchi & Zastrow, 2010). According to the 2008 EPAS, implicit curriculum encompasses the following:

The program’s commitment to diversity; admissions policies and procedures; advertisement, retention, and termination policies; student
participation in governance; faculty; administrative structure; and resources. The implicit curriculum is manifested through policies that are fair and transparent in substance and implementation, the qualifications of the faculty, and the adequacy of resources. The culture of human interchange; the spirit of inquiry; the support difference and diversity; and the values and priorities in the educational environment, including field setting, inform students’ learning and development (EPAS EP 3.0 p.10).

According to Petracchi and Zastrow (2010, p. 360) “the implicit curriculum should be systematic and ongoing.” The implicit curriculum brings to the fore the importance of diversity and this includes “age, class, color, culture, disability, ethnicity, gender, gender identity and expression, immigration status, political ideology, race, religion, sex, and sexual orientation” (EPAS, 2008, p. 11). In terms of accreditation standard, programs are to satisfy three areas; (3.1) requires programs to show how students learn in an environment that values difference and supports individuals from different backgrounds. Programs should be able to articulate their plans in promoting diversity as the students learn (Petracchi & Zastrow, 2010). Remarkably, “the implicit curriculum is as important as the explicit curriculum in shaping the professional character and competence of the program’s graduates” (Peirce, 2008, p. 1).

The final feature of the 2008 EPAS is Assessment. On the whole “assessment is an integral component of competency-based education” (Pierce, 2008, p. 1). It is through assessment that programs are investigated to see their demonstrated strides in
meeting the competencies outlined by the 2008 EPAS. According to Alvarez, Collins, Garber & Lazzari (2008, p. 73) “CSWE collects self-reported statistical information about schools and programs on all eligibility and accreditation standards as well as affirmative action data” but this has been a suspect in many cases.

2.8.7b Field Education

Field education is primordial to social work professional preparation as students are able to espouse theoretical knowledge with practical skills (Birkenmaier & Berg-Weger, 2007; Black & Field, 2006; Bogo & Vayda, 1987; Bogo, 2010; Raskin, Wayne, & Bogo, 2008; Wayne, Bogo & Raskin, 2006). According to Bogo and Vayda (1987) “field instruction is a unique area of social work practice and is applied through an interactive process” (p. 1). Field instruction can be juxtaposed with apprenticeship, pupilage, housemanship or internship in other professions and it gives the students hands on training of what they have learnt, and it is kind of complimentary to course work. Bogo and Vayda (1987, p. 1) assert that “academic courses alone are not enough nor is an apprenticeship requirement per se sufficient to qualify for a social work degree.” The impact of field practicum experience on students is great as students are able to apply their “learning through practice, develop and maintain professional autonomy” (Birkenmaier & Berg-Weger, 2007, p. 1). Remarkably, also “student/field instructor conferences constitute a critical component of the field education experience” (Black & Feld, 2006, p. 138). As a way of enhancing learning the field instructors train students as they “facilitate the student’s acquisition of the requisite practice knowledge, values and skills” (Black & Feld, 2006, p. 138). Many students are unfamiliar with things of the world;
problems such as poverty, lack of basic amenities, lack of social justice, lack of shelters for rape victims and other problems associated with domestic violence, and many other problems that are conspicuously found in many developing countries. Therefore, travelling overseas for international field placement will help students considerably.

The current field placement requirement stipulates 900 hours of field practicum for MSW students as this “appeared for the first time in the 1982 CPS” (Wayne, Bogo & Raskin, 2006, p. 165) and also stipulated in the 2008 Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards (EPAS). Under the explicit curriculum, Educational Policy 2.3 is Signature Pedagogy: Field Education. The terminology signature pedagogy has been credited to Lee S, Shulman who notes “in professional education, it is insufficient to learn for the sake of knowledge and understanding alone; one learns in order to engage in practice. But a true professional does not merely practice: he or she performs with a sense or personal and social responsibility” (Shulman, 2008, p. 18). The 2008 EPAS states

In social work, the signature pedagogy is field education. The intent of field education is to connect the theoretical and conceptual contribution of the classroom with the practical world of practice setting. It is a basic precept of social work education that the two interrelated components of curriculum-classroom and field-are of equal importance within the curriculum, and each contributes to the development of the requisite competencies of professional practice. Field education is systematically designed, supervised, coordinated
and evaluated based on criteria by which students demonstrate the achievement of program competencies (2008 EPAS, p. 8).

In terms of accreditation standards CSWE, states that programs are to satisfy nine criteria, and also paramount are the 400 hours for bachelors programs and 900 hours for Master’s programs and remarkably, the Accreditation Standard 2.1.4 states “admits only those who have met the program’s specified criteria for field education” (2008 EPAS, p. 9). According to Mulvaney (2011, p. 1) “while CSWE provides this basic requirement, it offers little guidance on how social work programs should select field placements. As a result, each social work program defines its own placement selection criteria. There has been an increase in the number of programs that place their students internationally but evaluating international placements has not been looked into much by CSWE as they provide “little guidance on how these placements should be evaluated” (Mulvaney, 2011, p. 1). Mulvaney in her paper submitted to The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, points out “CSWE does not collect information on schools that place internationally” (p. 2). Mulvaney (2011) asserts many programs do not have different factors to consider when they place students internationally according to her; programs use similar factors in placing domestic students. However, Mulvaney (2011) states programs take into consideration the political, social, and economic stability and the accommodation for students as well in sending students overseas.

The importance of study abroad and international field placement has been written about extensively (Kamya, 2009; Lager & Mathiesen, 2012; Panos, Pettys,
Panos et al (2004) in their study define international field placement to be “any placement, within another country other than the United States that met the practicum requirements for their degree, including receiving college credit. Therefore “field trips, study abroad, conferences, and brief exchanges were not counted as a practicum experience” (p. 469) According to Razack (2010, p. 251) “international exchanges are gaining attention in schools of social work.” The importance of field education is documented by the International Association of Schools of Social Work/ International Federation of Social Workers Global Standards that “Field education should be sufficient in duration and complexity of tasks and learning opportunities to ensure that students are prepared for professional practice” (IASS/IFSW, 2005, p. 5). Lager and Mathiesen (2012, p. 337) believe international “field placements provide opportunities for substantive student learning and are powerful tools that can prepare students for international practice.” In reiterating the experiences students may accrue, Lough (2009) writes that students benefit considerably from international placements as they will gain “greater awareness of global poverty, formulate realistic intervention strategies, recognize their role as participants, and strengthen their commitment to social justice” (p. 468). Lough (2009) however, cautions that if institutions do not provide the necessary support then students are bound to remain with their ethnocentric views about things and this will not be beneficial to them. Thus institutions should have the capacity to provide students with the opportunities to do international field placements. It is
expected that through international field placement social work programs can prepare students with core skills and provide the necessary support students need such as supervision (Lough, 2009) and a faculty liaison person.

Field education these days pose some problems for many CSWE accredited institutions. First though, there have been considerable changes in the composition of the student body. Many students are full time workers and rely greatly on their jobs to pay their tuition and augment the financial aid they receive from their schools. This means that austerity arrangements or personalized placement hours will help out (Wayne, Bogo, & Raskin, 2006). Before 1982 schools were given the leeway to determine “the structure of fieldwork and the number of required hours for students to achieve program goals and objectives” (Raskin, Wayne & Bogo, 2008, p. 175). According to Raskin et al, (2008) radical restructuring has been deemed best but CSWE still has not changed the 900 hours required by students to complete their field education. Dominelli and Bernard (2003, p. 8) state “students who go abroad have the opportunity to grow and develop if their interactions with others are conducted in accordance with the principles of valuing others.”

A study conducted by Pettys et al, (2005) of 21 US schools found that “the number of students placed internationally by any one university in any one year was very small” (p. 279). The study found out that programs close to borders were able to place more students in their neighboring countries of Mexico and Canada. A study by Mulvaney (2011, p. 2) found that “Masters of Social Work programs that are accredited for longer periods of time are more likely to place students internationally.” The study also found that programs with established collaborations
with schools of social work overseas were “more likely to place students internationally” (Mulvaney, 2011, p. 2). According to Pettys et al., (2005) students are required to apply for international placements and should demonstrate the financial ability and a good GPA score. Orientations or preparations for international field placement vary greatly from one institution to the other. Pettys et al., (2005) found that some schools conducted orientation seminars ranging from a day to two weeks. Preparation is key to successful international field placement (Lager & Mathiesen, 2012). Lough (2005) calls it a “comprehensive design” (p. 473), and this includes creating a good frame of mind for the students as to what they will expect so as to avoid cultural shock especially as some international placements involves traveling to developing countries where social amenities and a host of other facilities are lacking or bare. In many cases students will have to cover airfares, secure visas and the necessary vaccinations, obtain travel health insurance, buy medications and medical supplies and be greatly responsible for local travel and transportation.

According to Lough (2005) without proper preparation of students “could perpetuate and reinforce incorrect ideas and stereotypes thereby increasing ethnocentrism” (p. 474). In terms of student preparation Zunz and Oil (2009) note that programs need to prepare students in languages of their placement location as supervision was described as a “challenge because such language barriers” could inhibit the free flow of information about clients and the improper expression of reflection. They therefore suggest that “language barriers included carefully selecting and coaching field supervisors to deal with communication issues” (p. 134). Transportation barriers have been described by Zunz and Oil (2009) also as a major
inhibiting factor that students encounter during international placements and in order to ameliorate the problem schools have offered placements for students that are close in proximity to agencies or along routes of public buses. Another problem Zunz and Oil (2009) discuss is that of cross-cultural issues. According to Zunz and Oil (2009, p. 135) schools usually have clear and detailed conversation about the differences in culture and thereby offer the necessary preparations to their students. Another challenge U.S. social work programs face is that of health issues, “the need for multiple vaccinations and anti-malaria treatments often concerns parents and students” (Lowe, Dozier, Hunt-Hurst & Smith, 2008, p. 744).

Moving away from the domestic arena is the difficulty in finding international field placements “for students to demonstrate the program’s competencies” (2008, EPAS, p. 9). In the case of international field placement, it could be very expensive for students if it involves traveling to other countries. Accommodation is usually another problem as many students stay with families in order to reduce cost. The 2008 EPAS has as a criterion that programs should provide orientation to students, train field instructors and maintain a dialog with the field setting supervisor and also a faculty liaison person. This is somehow a problem for many countries as many social workers may not hold the qualifications a field setting supervisor should hold, a Master’s degree in social work and this makes many “field directors appear to be slightly more lenient with an accreditation requirement for international placement” (Mulvaney, 2011, p. 4). In many cases, field directors have come to rely greatly on what they hear about locations of placements “such as its political stability and standard of living, and what can be confirmed, such as telecommunication services”
(Mulvaney, 2011, p. 4) as field directors in many cases are not opportune to visit field settings internationally. However, Lager and Mathiesen (2012, p. 339) caution that in as much as “political social, and economic challenges must considered as relationship factors that affect the feasibility of exchanges, they should not be the sole determinants of future efforts.”

Lager and Mathiesen (2012) outline three principles they deem important that could facilitate and sustain international field placement. These include the principle of communication, principle of mutuality and reciprocity and the principle of relationship. According to Lager and Mathiesen (2012), under the principle of communication is pre-departure orientation which entails explaining to the students “basic expectations of the field program (e.g. suggested work attire, field hour required, daily or weekly work schedule, evaluations expectations and deadlines, evaluation submission guidelines, requirements of educational contract, corresponding learning objectives and proposed tasks in the placement, region-specific current event)” (p. 338). Students and professors need to know the political situation in the host country and may even read the CIA fact book or the US State Department report on countries.

The next principle in the principle of mutuality and reciprocity, basically note that mutuality and equality are pivotal when the relationship is established. It is important that both the host and the institution sending students on placement “should be able to benefit from the international field placement” (p. 338). The next principle is the principle of relationship. In this case, Lager and Mathiesen (2012) state personal relationship should be established and that all parties involved “develop
mutually rewarding goals, and to ensure reciprocity in the exchange” (p. 339).

According to Lager and Mathiesen (2012) schools should develop a clear plan and of
primordial importance they should get students to do “sufficient duration and
complexity of tasks and learning opportunities” so that the students will be well
prepared for professional practice especially as practical experience is needed to work
in different parts of the world or with people from other parts of the world. In terms
of field supervisors Lager and Mathiesen (2012) note schools can assign “field
supervisors or instructors who are qualified and experienced, as determined by the
development status of the social work profession in any given country” (p. 341).
Thus using US parameters to select supervisors will be a daunting feat for many hosts
and the supervisors may not have the necessary qualifications.

2.8.7c Tenure

Moving away from field placement is the issue of tenure and its impact on
social work education. “Tenure in U.S. higher education represents a form of limited
job security. It is a promise by an academic institution that faculty members will not be
dismissed without just cause” (Lowman, 2010, p. 259). Tenure guarantees a professor’s
employment and offer the protection that is needed to do the job (Lowman, 2010).
Conversely, fixed term faculty members are “employed for a specific period to perform
a defined job” (Lowman, 2010, p. 259). With this that of employment it will be left
with the university to rehire such an employee at their own discretion and with the
availability of funding and they are in no way obligated to do so. Lowman (2010) states
that the hiring of fixed term faculty is growing within the U.S. universities and he cited
the case of University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill as example that has seen an
increase of fixed term faculty especially outside the health profession. Thus making tenure commitment by universities entails a lot and universities have expressed fiscal concerns as an inhibiting factor.

Lowman (2010) states that professors are expected to involve in research and in many cases “continued employment is dependent upon publishing.” There is now a common understanding that professors publish or perish within the university system once they are hired. Remarkably, Lowman (2010) notes that although professors on fixed contract do not get to worry much about tenure, in order for them to qualify for future consideration of hire they should engage in active research as well. What prevails in many institutions is that the tenured professors act as “frontline managers, with a workforce consisting of technicians, graduate students, postdoctoral appointees and- increasingly- fixed-term faculty members. They spend much of their time supervising their research teams and managing budgets” (Lowman, 2010, p. 265). Lowman (2010, p. 265) goes on to say that “fixed-term faculty members are in contrast, increasingly just another part of the labor force” whose future employment lies in the hands of their bosses.

Tenure at many universities these days is worrisome for many new professors. According to Carter, Lew and Smith (2008, p. 203) “under a tenure track employment contract, a professor who fails to meet a high standard of research productivity during some finite probationary period is dismissed at the period’s end.” On the other hand, a professor that meets the stipulated conditions is granted tenure (Carter et al, 2008). Prior to the 1970s tenure was granted based on intensive teaching of classes which featured “teaching loads of nine hours or more per week” (Besosa,
Bousquet, Barnes, Nelson, Newfield, Nienow, & Thompson, 2010, p. 101) but is not the case these days as research is give more premium. Reliance on research greatly moves away from the universities’ original mission of imparting knowledge to students (Carter et al., 2008). Lowman (2010) offers some ways in which the whole issue of tenure could be looked into especially to ameliorate the continued fear new professors or fixed-term faculty exhibit. First though is that new faculty on tenure track should be trained extensively especially in “fair employment practices, motivating and supervising students and professional staff, budgetary management, scientific recordkeeping and public relations” (p. 266). Secondly, universities should recognize fixed term faculty member as permanent workers and not” ad hoc or temporary workers” (p. 266). Thirdly, many universities are offering grant writing training but Lowman (2010) states that it should be part of the doctoral curriculum in the first and second years. Fourthly, universities are to give voting rights to fixed-term faculty and that they are to serve on important faculty committees and lastly, tenure track and the whole promotion pattern to be transparent and new faculty to be offered the necessary guidelines and transparency about the whole tenure process.

Midgley (2010) writes about an attempt by the “university of Minnesota Duluth as they tried to create a social work program committed to teaching and scholarship in social development” (p. 9), the program made the necessary strides but “it encountered accreditation difficulties and the experiment was eventually terminated” (p. 9). This begs the question that programs do what is easily evaluated and hence the accreditation and reaccreditation of such a program.
Conclusion

In this section theories like the modernization theory, dependency theory and world systems theory have been used as a prelude to the international domain of things as the learning theories that are key to social work education have been incorporated. The Council on Social Work Education is the only accrediting body of social work institutions and with the introduction of the 2008 Educational Policy on Accreditation Standards (EPAS) deans, professors, and field directors provide students with the requisite knowledge and skills to acquire education. Some of the theories of learning like transformative learning, reflective practice and peer partnership are useful tools for educators. The importance of field education now described as signature pedagogy of the social work education is discussed and the issue of tenure is brought in to present some of the challenges educators encounter as they teach students.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Owing to the varied descriptions of international social work and the many contents in some curricular of accredited programs across the country, this study was designed to investigate the status of international social work courses at the MSW level in accredited CSWE institutions in Mid-Western USA. Qualitative inquiry was used in order to understand some of the reasons for the differences in international social work curricular. This chapter provides details about the sampling design, the choice of grounded theory, subjects, research setting, data collection, data analysis, data management and trustworthiness of the research. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994),

qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical materials—case study, personal experience introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional and visual texts—that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in individuals’ lives (p. 2).

Hakim (2000) states qualitative research “offers richly descriptive reports of individuals’ perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, views and feelings, the meanings and interpretations given to events and things, as well as their behaviour” (p. 34). Van
Maanen (1993) states qualitative research includes “an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less neutrally occurring phenomena in the social work” (p. 9). According to Schwandt (2001) qualitative research covers an array of techniques seeking to describe, decode, translate, and somehow come to terms with meaning rather than the measurement or frequency of the phenomena under study and Padgett (1998) suggests that qualitative research explores a topic that little is known about. Importantly “people are interviewed with open-ended questions in places and under conditions that are comfortable for and familiar to them” (Patton, 1998, p. 39). This study utilized grounded theory methodology (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glazer & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1994 and 1998).

3.2 Rationale for Grounded theory

as a Research Method

Grounded theory is a methodology for developing theory that is grounded in data systematically gathered from fieldwork and analyzed (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Glasser & Strauss, 1967; Patton, 2000; Strauss & Corbin, 1994; 1998). Corbin and Strauss (2008) state grounded theory could be also about description and this brings to the fore, the “depth, and innovation of the product that is generated” (p. 303). Grounded theory “may be built with diverse kinds of information-field notes, interviews and information in records and reports” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 14).

Grounded theory was first introduced by Glaser and Strauss in 1967 in The Discovery of Grounded Theory “primarily for grounding theory in social research
itself— for generating it from the data” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. viii). According to Glaser and Strauss (1967) grounded theory was a move away from the use of existing “grand theories” postulated by the likes of Marx, Mead, Comte and Spencer to the use of data derived from research with the objective of theory generation. Grounded theory has been very popular in social science research “it is the most frequently discussed, debated, and disputed of the research methods” (Walker & Myrick, 2006, p. 547). The two proponents of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss could not continue working together as Glaser published a book *Theoretical Sensitivity* in 1978 and after a decade later in 1987,”Strauss produced *Qualitative Analysis for Social Scientists*, a significant change in terms of the original version” (Walker & Myrick, 2006, p. 547). In 1990 also, Anselm Strauss published a book *Basics of Qualitative Research* with Juliet Corbin in which they spelt out “their version of grounded theory, which Glaser (1992) aggressively argued was not, in fact, grounded theory but a new method, which he called full conceptual description” (Walker & Myrick, 2006, p. 547).

In doing grounded theory, data collection through research is primordial as the focus is not to test formulated ideas in advance of data collection and analysis (Dey, 2004). Creswell (2007) acknowledges that with the use of grounded theory a researcher can study people within a given social context and thereby generate theory at the end of the study after data has been compared and contrasted (Creswell, 2007). Thus grounded theory enables the study of human interactions within their environment looking at their actions and consequences of such actions (Goulding, 1998). Dey (2004) states that “grounded theory involves a process of ‘theoretical
sampling' of successive sites and sources, selected to test or refine new ideas that emerge from data” (p. 81). This is important as the research needs to shelve existing theoretical framework and rely on the research manure to produce results. Theoretical sampling differs from that of statistical analysis prevalent in quantitative research methodology. Grounded theory also relies greatly on data acquired usually through “observation and unstructured interviews in the initial stages, then more structured forms of data collection as the study becomes focused” (Dey, 2004, p. 81). This study was guided by the method described by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998; Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

As I embarked on this qualitative research, the epistemological question relating to the nature of knowledge and how knowledge as a whole is obtained was sought (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 107) define paradigm as “a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimates or first principles.” For Strauss and Corbin “truth is enacted” by the researchers’ social and mental contexts.

In doing qualitative research the role of the researcher is of primordial importance as the collector of the data and the analyst as well. Thus in conducting a research of this nature, the researcher must be skilled and refrain from introducing bias and becoming very sensitive to the data. Part of my training is classes taken at the doctoral level in the college and having trained and qualified professors on my committee who offered valuable training and feedback.

In their book, Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials published in 1998, Denzin and Lincoln provide four paradigms that may serve as the foundation
for qualitative research” (Drisko, 2012, p. 12) namely, positivist and postpositivist, constructivist-interpretative, critical (Marxist, emancipatory), and feminist-poststructural” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 26) The design and analysis of this study was guided by positivist and postpositivist paradigm. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) state the positivist and postpositivist paradigms “work within a realist and critical realist ontology and objective epistemologies.” The major criteria of such interpretative paradigm are establishing internal and external validity and utilizing “rigorously defined qualitative methodologies” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 27). According to Denzin and Lincoln (1998, p. 26) “all research is interpretative, guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it is understood and studied.” As a researcher, I tried my level best to put aside my biases as such my best way of trying to achieve objectivity was to triangulate across the different perspectives. In relevance of the grounded theory tradition based on Corbin and Strauss, the study was undertaken. Walker and Myrick 2006, p. 548) assert that “grounded theory, although clearly a qualitative method, endeavored to integrate the strengths inherent in qualitative methods with qualitative approaches.”

According to Strauss and Corbin (1994, p. 279) “theories are constantly becoming outdated or in need of qualification.” In this case grounded theory provides an opportunity for multiple perspectives and through constant comparison, theoretical questioning, theoretical sampling and concept development and their relationships’ (p. 280). Strauss and Corbin (1994) further state that the researchers different social realities that may be unique and this may give another meaning between the
researcher and the participants in the study, “interpretations (conceptualizations)” (p. 280).

In this study there is a great belief by the researcher that in the mutual construction of findings especially as the participants are very educated and not seen as subjects in the study. And the interview guide used in this study provided the opportunity to the participants to expatiate on the topic and their views are incorporated into the findings. According to Allan (2003, p. 8) “greater reliability can be placed on the data gathered in an interview over that gathered by a list of self-completion questions in a survey.”

3.3 Sampling

As of August, 2011 there were 209 departments, schools/colleges or institutions accredited by the Council of Social Work Education (CSWE) to teach social work courses at the MSW level. Purposeful sampling was utilized to collect data for this study.

Purposive sampling is sometimes called judgmental sampling as researchers use their knowledge to select subjects who represent the population under study (Berg, 2004). Purposive sampling is important as the participants are those who can give relevant ideas or who can answer the questions the researcher has. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967) sampling is aimed at the construction of theory and not to show the representativeness of the population under review. On the other hand, Grounded theory also brings about discovering conceptual themes as proposed by Corbin and Strauss (1990).
3.3.1 Sample Size

According to Patton (2000) “there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry” (p. 244). Thus sample size is dependent upon what the researcher wants to know, the resources, time and what will be useful. Patton further states

The validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size (p. 245).

Holloway (1995) convincingly states that “A small sample is sufficient when researchers have chosen a homogenous group when they wish to investigate unusual or atypical phenomena” (p. 143). For this study, there were fourteen participants although initially the study started with ten participants. This decision was “modified according to the evolving theory” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 179) and the concepts that were identified. As a researcher, I was open to the increase in the number of participants as I conducted the interviews and coded the manuscripts. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 178) “theoretical sampling is cumulative. This is because concepts and their relationships also accumulate through the interplay of data collection and analysis.” This type of sampling “is responsive to data rather than established before the research begins” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 144).

3.3.2 Participants

Participants were identified as faculty who teach classes in international social work or are responsible for the international social work curriculum at the department, school or college. These individuals were able to provide the necessary
information that the study sought to uncover. Purposeful sampling was utilized in collecting data for this study. According to Patton (2000) purposive sampling is where in

Cases for study (e.g. people, organizations, communities, cultures, events, ethical incidences) are selected because they are “information rich” and illuminative, that is, they offer useful manifestations of the phenomenon of interest; sampling, the, is aimed at insight about the phenomenon, not empirical generalization from a sample to a population (p. 40).

I used two purposeful sampling methods, first criterion sampling and then theoretical sampling. Thus throughout the study criterion sampling was used to select participants. These individuals were able provide informative insights the research questions. Thus despite the lack of wide generalizability purposive sampling can occasionally be used to determine a situation (Berg, 2004), and in this case to explore the state of international social work curriculum in some CSWE accredited institutions in Mid-Western United States for students interested in international social work.

Thus, the use of a small sample did not diminish the credibility of the study at all, “because grounded theory methods aim to develop conceptual categories and thus data collection is directed to illuminate properties of a category and relations between categories” (p. 18). With theoretical sampling utilized the numbers of participants and data collection was “controlled by the emerging theory” (Strauss, 1987, p. 39). I employed theoretical sampling after I had analyzed the first set of
data. My initial letters were addressed to deans of the programs, but as conceptual categories emerged I sought to interview professors who were directly in charge of study abroad programs or international field placements. On the whole, saturation took place when no more theoretical sampling was feasible and the phenomenon under study had been exhausted (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

3.3.3 Recruitment of the Participants

From the CSWE website I was able to identify all the accredited MSW institutions in Mid-Western United States and therein sent out solicitation letters for their participation. Initially all the letters were addressed to the deans of the programs in the Midwest and professors whose areas of teaching and research interests included international social work. Geographically, Mid-Western United States includes the following states Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota and Wisconsin. In some cases the deans accepted the invitation and in some other cases I was referred to faculty who were deemed knowledgeable about international social work or heads (associate deans) of the MSW programs. At one of the universities, a non-faculty member who is directly in charge of the international social work program was recruited. Thus after the first interview and the data analyzed, theoretical sampling was employed as I sought participants who were not deans and who could provide pertinent answers to the areas that emerged. According to Corbin and Strauss (2008)

Theoretical sampling is based on the premise that data collection and analysis go hand in hand. In other words, data collection never gets too far ahead of analysis because the focus of subsequent data collection;
that is, the questions to be asked in the next interview or observation are based on what was discovered during the previous analysis (p. 145).

Recruitment of participants took place approximately over a 14-month timeframe. After the solicitation letters were sent out, I made follow up telephone calls and also sent E-mails. Being that the locations were far away from Columbus Ohio, the researcher made appointments at the convenience of the participants and subsequently drove to the participant’s location. In grounded theory the main criterion for the final sample size is theoretical saturation (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), as such, data should be gathered until each category or theme is saturated and the relations among the categories well established (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). In this study, the sample size is fourteen was used as the base line and theoretical saturation was employed by me to determine this.

3.3.4 The Setting

All interviews for this study took place at the participants’ offices in their various institutions as the researcher travelled to all the sites. Each interview lasted for over thirty-five minutes and I did not place any restriction on the duration of the interviews as some participants expatiated more or delved into the subject matter. The sites were very conducive for recording as an audio-tape recorder was used at all the interviews. Owing to the difficulty in setting up appointments with participants data for this study were collected from August 2010 to February 2012.

3.3.5 Access

As part of the requirements for doing a study of this nature, permission was sought and approved by the Ohio State University Institutional Review Board (IRB).
The IRB approved the study as an exempt meaning it did not have to go through the full review process. Subsequently, solicitation letters were sent out to potential participants and once they accepted to participate in the research study, another letter requesting permission to be on their campuses were sent out as well. All interviews were conducted at the convenience of the participants. The participants in this study volunteered to do so at their own volition. No compensation was offered to the participants. Thus the contributions of the participants became the pivotal to the study and not the financial compensation to them (Weiss, 1994).

3.4 Data Collection

Data for this study were collected using in-depth interviews on a one-on-one basis. Thus through in-depth interviews patterns emerged from the thick descriptions of social work programs as I explored the status of international social work at accredited CSWE institutions in the Mid-West. The interviews were unstructured so as to enhance the discovery of new ideas and themes (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Each of the interviews lasted between 35 minutes to an hour. Thus “intense interviewing permits an in-depth exploration of a particular topic or experience and this is a useful method for interpretative inquiry” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 25).

Given the use of predominantly open-ended questions, the participants were more willing to talk and interact verbally thereby bringing in individualized responses. As a researcher I was able to make a “truer assessment of what the respondent really believes” (Burns, 1990, p. 290) and this gave the researcher an insight into the status of international social work at the institution. According to Burns (1990), open-ended questions create situations that result in unexpected or
unanticipated answers by the interviewee. During the interviews, some questions were repeated in order for participants to get clear knowledge of what I meant. At the same time, I sought additional information when some participant’s responses were not very clear by probing further.

Field notes were taken during each of the interviews. Field notes included summaries of the interviews, jottings and analytic memoing. I analyzed my field notes along with the interview transcripts. The field notes contained “some conceptualization and analytical remarks” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 124) as well. On the whole, field notes were very useful as I transcribed the interviews as they aided in providing a comprehensive record of the interview process.

At the start of each interview, each participant was given the Informed Consent form approved by the Ohio State University Institutional Review Board to review and questions pertinent to the research process were answered subsequently. The participant and researcher appended their signatures on both copies and the each participant received a copy for their records.

3.4.1 Data Management

Using voice-activated tape recorders, the participants’ exact words were recorded and transcribed verbatim, a practice that helped me to participate in the dialogue rather than having to concentrate on note taking (Burns, 1990). Patton (1990, 348) states “the use of a tape recorder permits the interviewer to be more attentive to the interviewee.” With this I was able to take notes during the interviews and therein formulated new questions and further also the notes served as back up to the transcripts especially if some parts of the cassettes were not very audible. All the
interviews took place at the convenience of the participants and at their locations. The interviews took place in a peaceful atmosphere conducive to recording. The transcribed interviews were thoroughly reviewed for accuracy and the final product did not have the participants’ names. The transcripts were sent to all the participants via Electronic mail so as to give them the opportunity to check whether their responses had been misunderstood. Once the transcripts were returned to me the necessary corrections were made. Middleton (1993) pointed out; the people concerned should approve the transcript material before it is finally used by the researcher, especially to cross check that their views have not been misconstrued.

3.5 Protection of Human Subjects

Before the study commenced, the Ohio State University Office of Responsible Research Practices determined that this study was exempted from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) review. But as part of the research protocol itself, the researcher obtained informed consent from each participant. At the beginning of each interview the researcher gave participants the Informed Consent form (Appendix E) for their signatures and gave them a copy for their records. As required by the university all the consent forms will be kept for a period of three years after the completion of the research. All the interview information is confidential with only researcher and committee member who had completed the CITI training getting access to it. The research participants and their institutions were in no way identified as pseudonyms were used and other identifiers removed, like names of the cities in which the institutions are located.
3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis in qualitative research design “means breaking down the data and searching for codes and categories which are then reassembled to form themes” (Holloway, p. 43, 1997). Analysis of data is a “dynamic process” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008 p. 46). Patton (2002) describes data analysis as transforming data into findings. Willis (2007, p. 310) defines data analysis as when “the raw data are used to create a descriptive and explanatory model that represents the first case.” Miles and Huberman (1994) note that data analysis contains three linked subprocess which are as follows, data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing. According to Corbin and Strauss (2008) “analysis begins with the collection of the first pieces of data” (p. 47) as it can range from “superficial description to theoretical interpretation” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 50). Besides, data analysis is fundamental in the analytical process as a whole.

In this study, I began analyzing the data after the first interview and this continued throughout the data collection process as this is indeed a basic principle of grounded theory as postulated by Strauss and Corbin (1998). According to Wiersma (2000, p. 202) “data collection and data analysis usually run together” After the first interview I developed new questions that required participants to dwell on areas hitherto were not included in my initial interview. The initial interview guide and the final version can be reviewed in Appendix C and D.

The analysis in this study included writing field notes, memos, typing the interviews, reviewing the transcripts and coding them as well. However, it was not
feasible for each interview to be transcribed and analyzed before the next interview as the transcription was done by me and speed was a factor.

3.6.1 Open Coding

Microanalysis was utilized for all the interviews. Microanalysis is “designed to break open data to consider all possible meanings” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 59). Microanalysis sets out the foundation of open coding as it is more detailed and very useful at the start of the research process after the first interview. Microanalysis brings out the generation of ideas the researcher can develop and it “helps to prevent early foreclosure because it forces a researcher to think outside his or her frame of reference” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 59). Microanalysis is “the detailed line-by-line analysis necessary to generate initial categories and to suggest relationships among categories” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 57). Though time consuming, microanalysis provides considerable benefits to the researcher. Each transcript was reviewed line-by-line in this study so as to garner ideas for code generation. According to Corbin and Strauss (2008 p. 160) the use of open coding makes the data open to “all potentials and possibilities contained within them.” Thus this helped the researcher considerably to generate new codes and it prevented me from overlooking important ideas and constructs and this was followed by open coding.

Open coding involves “the naming and categorizing of phenomena through close examination of data” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 62). Open coding brings about “delineating concepts to stand for blocks of raw data” (Strauss & Corbin, 2008, p. 195). Coding helps to put aside “preconceived notions about what the researcher expects to find in the research and letting the data interpretation of it guide analysis”
(p.160). According to Walker and Myrick (2006) “coding is an iterative, inductive yet reductive process that organizes data, from which the researcher can then construct themes, essences, descriptions and theories” (p. 549).

From the microanalysis, I had created a codebook and the codes from the initial interviews were used to identify similar concepts (See Appendix F). According to Strauss and Corbin (2008, p 160) “concepts can range from lower-level concepts to higher-level concepts.” According to Holloway (1997), concepts and phrases were labeled from the interview transcripts and field notes. Color coding of the transcripts provided a synopsis of each interview’s key themes and these were further grouped under the headings of study abroad programs, international field placements or internship at an international agency, curricular: course work or research, collaborations with universities overseas, funding and issues about tenure. These names were used for easy reference and based from the “disciplinary and professional reading” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 68), or the international social work jargons. Also known as in vivo codes; words and phrases used by the participants were coded. I coded the data line by line and paragraph by paragraph. With line-by-line coding the researcher was able “to remain open to the data” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 50). This process allowed the researcher to review the codebook making the necessary comparisons of the data and thereby helped to refocus later interviews as elucidated by Corbin and Strauss (2008). Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 12) therefore states coding is the “fundamental analytic process used by the researcher.”
3.6.2 Axial Coding

With axial coding small categories are usually grouped to form major categories. It is during this phase that “propositions are generated” (Holloway, 1997, p. 85). Axial coding is putting the “data back together in new ways by making connections between a category and its sub categories” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 97) and importantly to show how “they are related” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 61). With the aid of my memos I was able to link categories to subcategories and the corresponding quotations were reviewed for similarities and the causal conditions were looked for to match the phenomena (See Appendix G).

3.6.3 Selective Coding

In the case of selective coding, core categories are linked and “like a thread the category should be integrated and provide the storyline” (Holloway, 1997, p. 85). At this stage the researcher was able to specify relationships between the categories that were developed within the axial coding. A list of quotations was developed that corresponded with the codes identified earlier on. On the whole “selective coding is the process of integrating and refining the theory” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 161). The central categories enable the consolidation of other categories to explain a whole and these represent all of the categories to a great extent (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Strauss and Corbin (1998) outline some techniques in going about selective coding namely writing the storyline, using diagrams, and sorting the memos by hand or by computer program. In this case I developed the story line and sorted the memos by hand.
I also used ATLAS.ti program which is a straightforward code-and-retrieve system (Silverman, 2005). According to Drisko (2004 p.1) “ATLAS.ti is capable, flexible tool for most qualitative data analysis tasks.” This aided to eliminate voluminous paper and therein sped up the analysis as a whole. I used ATLAS.ti to code the data as well. Codes were assigned to represent the conceptual materials of my preliminary interpretations as detailed by Drisko (2004).

The analyzed data obtained from the interviews will form the bulk of quotations in my chapter 4, which presents my findings. Content analysis was ongoing throughout the data collection process something emphasized by Morse (1994) advanced by Strauss and Corbin (1994).

3.7 Memos

Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 198) note “memos represent the written forms of our abstract thinking about data” and the give details of the analytical process (Holloway, 1997). According to Birks, Chapman and Francis (2008, p. 68) “memoing serves to assist the researcher in making conceptual leaps from raw data to those abstractions that explain research phenomena in the context in which it is examined.” I wrote my memos in a notebook that I carried with me most of the time even before I started conducting the interviews. Indeed “the writing of memos is central to the process of investigating phenomena within the qualitative domain” (Birks, et al, 2008, p. 69). With the use of memos I was able to immerse myself in the data and this made me explore the meaning that was embedded in the data, a practice postulated by Birks et al. (2008). Later on, I stored my memos within the ATLAS.ti
so as to give me the opportunity to make easy references to the participants’
comments during the analytical phase of the research.

3.8 Establishing Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness was ensured so as to bring about credibility and subsequently
transferability, dependability and conformability. Trustworthiness refers to the rigor
or validity of the study and the extent to which the research is authentic and credible
(Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Also known as the truth value of the piece of research
(Holloway, 1997), trustworthiness reflects the reality and the ideas of the respondents.
According to Holloway (1997), credibility, transferability, dependability and
conformability are all elements of trustworthiness of a research. Indeed several
triangulation strategies were utilized in order to strengthen the study. Trustworthiness
includes certain criteria that this researcher met so that the research findings will be
judged as credible.

3.8.1 Credibility

Credibility parallels that of internal validity in quantitative research
(Holloway, 1997). Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe credibility as the extent to
which findings and interpretations reflect the research participants’ point of view.
This was achieved through member checking, triangulation and peer debriefing.
According to Corbin and Strauss (2008, p. 302) “credibility” indicates that the
findings are trustworthy and believable in that they reflect participants’, researchers’
and readers’ experiences with a phenomenon.” All of the participants are erudite
individuals working in universities and therefore were able to discuss at length their
views about the phenomenon. Therefore the researcher delineated interpretations
from the quality data that they provided. Participants offered detailed descriptions of the topic under study and this moves to greater extent to make the study a quality one.

3.8.2 Member Check

In qualitative research member checking can be used in order to ensure credibility. Lincoln and Guba (1985) define member check as

Whereby data, analytic categories, interpretations, and conclusions are tested with members of those stake holding groups from whom the data were originally collected, is the most crucial technique for establishing credibility (p. 314).

Transcripts of each interview were sent to the research participants via Electronic mail as I sought verification or confirmation of accuracy of the data from them so that their answers were not misconstrued. An explanation of the process was made to the participants in the letters sent to them as it could have been very expensive for the researcher to travel again to the participants’ locations. Member check is a useful process as the feedback from the respondents will help control any preconceived notion held by me the researcher. The participants were given the opportunity to listen to the audio tapes if they wanted but none of the participants requested the tapes. Additional member checking was done by telephone once the transcripts were received. After I arrived at the themes and findings, I sent them to two participants so as to ascertain if they agreed to or disagreed with my findings. I later on made telephone calls to the participants and they were in agreement with the themes and findings. The participants were taken as a representative sample of all to review. One of the participants selected was a dean and the other a faculty member.
representing the two groups that the researcher perceived had emerged (Deans/Faculty). According to Patton (1990, p. 483) “qualitative inquiry can present quite accurate data on various perspectives, including the evaluator’s perspective.” Indeed the dean and the faculty member involved provided detailed information during the interviews and I therefore configured that they were very much interested in the study and therefore would provide feedback in a timely fashion which they did. Merriam (2000, p. 26) states “you take your tentative findings back to some of the participants (from whom you derived the raw data through interviews or observations) and ask whether your interpretation “rings true”.

3.8.3 Triangulation

Janesick (1994) outlines four types of triangulations viz: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation. Generally triangulation refers to using two or more sources to achieve a comprehensive picture of a fixed reference point (Padgett, 1998), investigating from different perspectives (Holloway, 1997). Triangulation can help “improve validity and overcome the biases inherent in single perspective” (Holloway, 1997, p. 157). In this study the researcher utilized only three types of triangulations data, investigator and theory.

In data triangulation, data was sought from different “groups, locations and times” (Holloway, 1997, p. 157). In terms of triangulating data the researcher collected documents from each of the programs. The documents collected were admission packages, and other informational materials for students and programs’ magazines and brochures. I also browsed on the Internet looking at the information of
the programs’ webpages. I then compared all the documents (Bulletins, Newsletters, Brochures and Magazines) obtained with the interview data and checked for consistency of what the respondents said about their views as it related to international social work. The documents “were not produced for the researcher” (Merriam, 1998, p. 121) or this study as they were just general information about their programs but they were somehow useful. According to Huberman and Miles (1998, p. 199) “sources can be inconsistent or even conflicting with no easy means of resolution.” However, in many cases the documents confirmed the interview data as they were great sources of supplementary data.

With investigator triangulation, more than one researcher is involved in the research process as a whole. In terms of investigator triangulation, the principal investigation of this study, my academic advisor, provided ongoing expert review of the materials submitted and therein made the necessary corrections needed.

Theory triangulation was enhanced with the use of different theoretical perspectives and methodological triangulation entails the use of different strategies although this should be within the same paradigm (Holloway, 1997). For the theory triangulation, the researcher examined interviews with participants using the perspective of transformative learning, curriculum theory and international social work theories like dependency theory and world systems theory and scholarly writings on international social work issues.

Thus, there was great consistency in the methodology as the researcher was able to study the grounded theory methodology and did not in any deviate from it. Although there are different types of grounded theory, Corbin and Strauss caution
that in order to maintain credibility the researcher should maintain constant
comparison of data, maintain a good “method of analysis, the use of concepts and
their development, theoretical sampling and saturation. For this research, the
researcher did constant comparison of data, analyzed data once the interviews were
conducted, concepts were developed and theoretical sampling took place and then
when saturations set in no further data were collected.

3.8.4 Peer debriefing

Peer debriefing is also very important in establishing credibility of the research. Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 308) state peer debriefing “is a process of
exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session
and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain
only implicit within the inquirer’s mind.” In doing the analysis of this research
segments were prepared and submitted and meetings were scheduled for the
researcher to explain how some codes were arrived at. Thus “the debriefing provides
an initial and searching opportunity to test working hypotheses that may be emerging
in the inquirer’s mind” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). Feedbacks were incorporated
into the analysis.

3.8.5 Transferability

Transferability is very important in qualitative research as it could be
juxtaposed to external validity in doing quantitative research “and is described as the
extent to which the conclusions of the study can be applied to other contexts or have
any larger impact” (Harley, 2005, p. 45). Thus through thick description, I would be
able to transfer the research findings to other CSWE accredited institutions in other
parts of the country. Indeed thick descriptions are important as it would enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility. Thus in other to ensure thick description the interview guide had open-ended questions and this was good as participants provided detailed explanations of the topic under study. The questions were revised in subsequent interviews in order to elicit answers that were more pertinent to the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that through thick descriptions a researcher can pave the way for transferability of the research findings. Thus, this will “enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316). In this study, I provided thick descriptions of the programs interviewed. The very composition of the research participants through purposive sampling were able to provide the kind of information needed.

3.8.6 Dependability

According to Holloway (1997, p. 161) for a study to be considered dependable “it must be consistent and accurate.” So that another researcher can rely on it for future inquiry or research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Holloway (1997) notes that leaving an audit trail is of primordial importance and documentations like field notes, interview scripts, and memos should be readily available. Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 317) juxtapose dependability to that of the role of an auditor as “he or she examines the process by which the accounts were kept, to satisfy the stakeholders that they are not the victims of what is sometimes called “creative accounting.” In this study, field
notes and the analysis of transcripts that enhanced the final codes and categories was available for the research/dissertation committee to see and make comments.

3.8.7 Confirmability

Confirmability is also known as objectivity connoting that the “findings are the result of the research and not an outcome of the biases and subjectivity of the researcher” (Holloway, 1997, p. 161). Through audit trails, field notes and memos the researcher ensured confirmability and this conspicuously shows the findings of the research were based on the data collected and not based on the researcher’s perceptions or expectations of the status of the topic under study. I kept a reflexive journal in which I documented not only the methodology of the study but my personal feelings as well. According to Holloway (1997, p. 161) confirmability ensures “ensures decision trail for public judgement.” In trying to establish confirmability Lincoln and Guba (1985) the auditor will try to ascertain “whether the findings are grounded in the data.”

Summary

In this study, I employed grounded theory methodology as postulated by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994, and 1998; Corbin & Strauss, 2008) to explore the state of international social work curriculum in some CSWE accredited institutions in Mid-Western United States. The next chapter presents the findings of the interviews conducted with participants and highlights the emerging themes and categories.
CHAPTER 4

4.1 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents findings of the study. The study participants are all educated as they all work in universities as professors with the exception one participant, who is in charge of the international social work program; who is an administrator. Three of the participants were deans of the colleges of social work and eleven of them associate deans or directly in charge of the MSW program at their institutions. No name of the universities involved will be mentioned as a way of maintaining confidentiality. Table 4.2 provides a brief overview of the data I collected.
<table>
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<th>University</th>
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<th>Private</th>
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<th>Ph.D.</th>
<th>International Field Placement</th>
<th>Study Abroad</th>
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Table 4.1 Data Overview

4.2 Emerging Themes
According to Strauss and Corbin (1990) open coding is an “analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in the data” (p. 101). Thus, data collection and data analysis was done simultaneously and the researcher used constant comparison method to analyze the interview transcripts. Strauss and Corbin (1990. p. 192) state “unlike the sampling done in quantitative investigations, theoretical sampling cannot be planned before embarking on a grounded theory study.” The decision came about as the themes emerged. In a bid to determine themes for this research, the researcher also used peer debriefing. Two peer experts were given copies of the manuscripts to read and they identified similar themes.

4.3 Description of Themes

For this research piece, I will discuss seven major themes that emerged and all of these themes somehow inhibit the growth of the international social work curriculum. The seven themes are: Definition of International Social Work, Funding, Collaboration, International Placement and Study Abroad, Textbooks for International Social Work, Tenure and Curriculum Development.
Figure 4.1 Conceptualization of Themes

The diagram above is conceptually coherent in the representation of the curriculum of international social work. The themes within the circle (Internal Factors) (definition of international social work, curriculum development, study abroad and international field placements, and textbooks) are impacted by the external themes funding, tenure, and collaboration. The themes discovered in this study are very important when it comes to social work education in the CSWE accredited programs. Many definitions of international social work were provided by the participants, and all of the definitions are pertinent to the values and ethics of the
social work profession as it relates to social justice and human rights, diversity issues and global social problems as well. The importance of study abroad programs and international field placement is a theme that seeks to demonstrate how programs train social work students in acquiring field education which is now seen by the profession and the accrediting body as signature pedagogy. Also curriculum development is very important so that students are taught the international social work jargons and providing more educational materials for them to study. The theme of textbooks is very important as it a major means of transmitting knowledge to students. This theme brings to the fore the issue of infusing international social work topics or having more textbooks on international social work when a concentration is designed or put in place.

However, the other themes (External Factors) namely funding, tenure and collaboration continue to be the major stumbling blocks in designing international social work concentration. The lack of money or the insufficient funding has placed international social work concentration at the lower rung of the priority ladder by programs as it is more expensive to create and maintain a concentration in the area of international social work. Also collaboration of school leaders, the programs and the institutions at large are discussed. From this theme, one can deduce that leaders of social work programs should engage in regular contacts with their colleagues so as to share their experiences in leading their programs and thereby work on areas that could impact or improve student learning.
4.3.1 Definition of International Social Work

Many definitions of international social work were given by participants and this emerged as a major theme in this study. A dean had this to say in defining international social work.

I think there is probably not one definition so I think different faculty you speak to would each have a different definition but from my own perspective I think it’s any social work that involves international issues it’s not a function so much of geography. I think you can probably never leave this country and do international work if you are working with people that have immigrated to the country. For members of ah or people who live here who need help with people who live in other countries I think it’s any work that engages individuals from other than from this country.

Another dean had this to say in terms of definition of international social work.

We tend to use the classic definition generated by Lynne Healy in her text International Social Work. It can be domestic practice that deals with international relations of which …….. is ideally located for this. My phrase about our program is that you don’t need to go overseas to deal with international issues they are right here in …….. To us also it implies professional exchange programs between faculty and students, research projects, and it also implies direct or micro or macro practice abroad. It means out of country experience. So these three elements will be our classic definition.

Below is a definition provided by the only female dean was interviewed.

Well international social work for us is anything that draws attention or exchange for the faculty or the students that takes us beyond the realm of the United States so it might be in terms of exchange of faculty of either visiting or having someone here or it might be in realm of course work that is related to topics beyond the realm of the United States.
In the case of one associate dean, this is what he said,

We don’t have a formal definition. All I can do is, share with you how I will view it but it’s not a formal definition. But essentially it’s social work that is committed to empowering individuals, communities, families in different societies along with the principles of social justice and enhancing the well-being of individuals, families, communities and societies. But also it’s done with countries interacting with one another social work is done interacting with one another but it is done within culturally appropriate context so the principles of social work, human behavior, social justice and human rights broadly defined.

Another dean provided this as a definition of international social work.

Good question as we define it here. I would say, we have a limited experience but it is part of our long range plan but it is to provide students with the experience with how social work is conceptualized outside the U.S. as well as engaging students in social work activities outside of the U.S. So international social work as we see it is really looking social work as how it is defined, how it is conceptualized as outside the components of the United States. And I think its being my experience that there is being perhaps a distinction between global social work and international social work and I am always clear about those distinctions. Now I think it’s kind of being redundant at least broadening the conceptualization of social work.

With the definition provided I decided to probe further and the excerpt below shows another definition by the same participant

**Researcher:** So what about in terms doing international social work here locally because your first definition dwelt on outside what about internally?

**Respondent:** Okay Okay. I will respond to that. I talked about social work; I talked about it being local and global but also looking at the rich mosaic of the client population the population here in Chicago area and realizing that in Chicago there are people from many different parts of the world, and one of the areas that I teach personally is the area of cultural diversity preparing student to work with immigrants here and being very sensitive to the kind
of new cultural practices that they present here as they struggle with acculturation and assimilation issues so in a sense it is not just looking overseas but looking at it working with other parts of the world who come here. In some ways I guess is looking at social work from a much broader than just Western perspective. One of the things we talk about here in …… stay in …….. idea, looking at what I call diaspora social work. Being much more sensitive to the diaspora experiences of people who are here in the U.S. but also broadening our lenses to look at the Central, South America and also various families from the African experience who are part of the Diaspora. It is something that we kind of talk about every placement out there instead of a paradigm. So it’s more of a narrowly focused paradigm than a global or international diaspora.

_researcher:_ So does department define international social work in any of your documents?  
_respondent:_ In our documents we don’t define it. We talk about it but we don’t define it. We are not at the point yet to defining it. The reason why I state is that we have not defined it yet.

In the absence of a formal definition, this dean provided a definition of international social work.

We don’t have a formal definition. All I can do is share with you how I will view it but it’s not a formal definition. But essentially it’s social work that is committed to empowering individuals, communities, families in different societies along with the principles of social justice and enhancing the well-being of individuals, families, communities and societies. But also it’s done with countries interacting with one another social work is done interacting with one another but it is done within culturally appropriate context so the principles of social work, human behavior, social justice and human rights broadly defined.

4.3.2 Funding

Funding came out a major theme also delineating the problems accredited institutions in the Mid-West encounter as they try to develop courses in international social work. Participants discussed problems associated with the limited funding for professors and students and even study abroad programs and international field placements. The excerpts below present the current problems.
Well the biggest challenge is funding. International programming if it works entails traveling and it is very expensive so I am concern about that. Last year, this summer, last summer we had to cancel two of our three international study abroad programs for lack of participation because you know the economy was so bad folks didn’t have money. This year the college picked up a much bigger cost. Up until this year we tried not to lose money on those. We lost money on them but invested some money so that they would run this year. So cost is a big thing I think that’s the big one we have a fair amount of expertise, we have a commitment to it, our strategic plans speaks to one include to expand international. You know the fact that we were selected from among a number of undergraduate programs to internationalize our curriculum reflects both the ability here but also the commitment to write a good proposal so I think primarily. Funding I guess is our biggest problem.

You’ve touched on exactly the reason that I have said I am not taking students to Ghana anymore. Initially my institution was the problem in that the funding available - particularly for sub Saharan Africa- was dedicated for PhD research. I was told “mm Masters Students don’t need any assistance. They are not doing any research here so why should they be funded?” I said that if one looks at the number of people who are in the United States Foreign Service, you will note that most of them do not have PhDs. How in the world are we going to train the next generation of people to be something other than myopic in their perspective without having these kinds of programs? Well my University “colleagues” didn’t like that very much. However, a funding source came to the rescue from corporation and foundation sources. After the first year of operating and evaluating the Ghana program, the funding continued; eventually augmented by funding from my institution.

We really need to talk about money. We still have to struggle for money. We still have to do that despite this university’s public commitment to some programs in South Africa and Ghana. So, for students who went to go to Ghana with me, I write grants and letters of recommendation for support everywhere. Locally we have a decent track record. We have been able to find, some programs willing to fund our students. It also helps that we can find a cheap lodging.
In some instances the students have to foot all their own bills for study abroad trips and international field placements and this usually entails a lot of money. An associate dean in one of the programs explains:

Our main challenges are resources. There are so many faculties. For doing study abroad trips and even the field internships students have to pay a certain amount, the trips have to pay for themselves we don’t have extra money to cover these kinds of trips. We may invest some money. We have invested some money on making initial trips overseas, making the contacts, for example I took the first group of students to India, the students paid their own travel fare but the school had to cover my expenses and then there was some help on the other end when we got there so there is a collaboration also we have some other professor over here and we supported him when he was teaching a class.

The problem of funding for students was reiterated by the only non-academic participant who is very instrumental in placing students overseas. Students generally have to fend for themselves as this excerpt shows. “Funding is difficult. This is not an undergraduate program that offers money to students. As graduate students they are adults they are on their own they mostly responsible for the cost so there isn’t funding for them.” A dean gave a grim picture of how the lack of state and government funding lead to the stagnation of designing new courses like international social work.

What happened was that our president is very interested in having our students have exposure and experience. So we did a presentation to him with our contacts, you remember the president of the university will be able to meet with the various NGOs folks and there were a whole lot of people there in preparation for contact when we have students. He said at the presentation this is great but where will I get the dollars from. I liked it. But because as a state university here in…… we are in dire financial situation. I don’t how it is in …… but it is rough here in ……. very rough.

One participant explained that they appeal for funds from the university and agencies like Ford Foundation and the United Nations so with this they assist students
either by helping them with pre-departure expenses or helping with transportation and other costs in the host country. Some programs help their professors especially if they are undertaking research. The excerpt below explains it.

Yes. The college in fact as a whole there are pockets of interest in international work and no one is opposed to international social work of course obviously but it’s not being addressed or a key focal point of the faculty as a whole. It has been an important focal point for some faculty as it comes along in their research as well as some of their projects that are funded by the government through our college.

4.3.3. Study Abroad and International Field Placements

Study abroad and international field placements are now seen as major components of doing international social work. In the interviews, participants explained different durations of their study abroad trips that ranges from one week to three weeks and longer stay for international field placements. In some cases the composition of the student body does not ginger up the administration to plan study abroad trips or have an international field placement.

We have also talked about study abroad programs looking at our students’ interests. I think the reason why we don’t have one for now is the nature of our student body to be very honest with you. We have a lot of non-traditional students who are craze bound to the …… metropolitan area. We don’t have a lot of out-of-state students and most of our students are part-time. We have almost an equal number of part-time students so that presents a different kind of student population in terms of area of interest and the ability to do certain kinds of international activities like study abroad programs (Associate Dean, University 4).

It was revealed that programs should prepare students very well for the international field placement so that students know what they expect on the trips overseas. One participant explained that taking students overseas is labor intensive so they usually get another faculty to accompany the students.

its labor intensive, because I want a male and a female because
all of our students are female. I want two people so that the faculty can be safe and the students can be safe. One participant stated they do their best to explain to students that they can still practice international social work within their locales; he also explained that there are many opportunities for them in the international arena. As such faculty provides the necessary advisement to students as they plan their careers.

International social work is the future of social work practice today and I often use this expression, you, you may not be practicing abroad alone but the client base that you operate with here is going to be very different. In the training of the social workers today what they will face in their practice life time since with international clients here in a domestic setting and for a few of them it would also involve practice abroad. I have been encouraging our students to think about looking for positions in international aid organizations, to apply for positions in the Foreign Service so that they can work in embassies around the world. I encourage them to think about the National Public Health Service Corp to think about VISTO or other volunteer organizations and I will love for my graduates to be employed by the International Monetary Fund or the World Bank to give them more of a helping rather than an economic perspective. Is the objective I have?

4.3.4 Collaboration

Developing collaborations between schools in America and other parts of the world has been written about by Asamoah and Beverley (1988). The authors recommend collaboration in the following areas: Curriculum planning and development, Levels of training, Development of fieldwork, Development of indigenous teaching, Research, Funding and, creating opportunities for mutual exchange. Collaborations with institutions should be at an egalitarian level and the concept of North/South divide should not be echoed in the classroom situation. The lack of collaboration could be potentially expensive as this dean pointed out.
The other challenge is more collaborative programs among school leaders, our next door neighbor and even your …………….., they don’t want to communicate to other programs and we all go to the same place, ten thousand miles from here and then they say I am from … and you are from …………. We need to talk more; we have a tendency of building our own little empire. We don’t want to talk to each other. Communication is a great challenge, communication, communication.

The dean went to say further that the lack of communication among deans lead to the duplication of services and with effective communication schools in geographical proximity could design international collaborations or even study abroad trips that could benefit them all at lesser cost. Further also, the dean stated that the lack of collaboration even makes it difficult for the social work programs to get funding as they all usually request to the same funders. This is what he explained:

Yes we were successful in working with The USAID, Fulbright, like I just said. Before now we are exploring private foundations and businesses and industries also. But it will be stronger if all the deans could get together and tell their faculties to collaborate with other schools of social work programs. It will be much easier to get money instead of competing from the little pot.

Another important issue that came to the fore in the interviews was the lack of collaboration between schools of social work and local International Non-Governmental Organizations. One dean shared this information with the researcher.

**Researcher:** So what about locally? Do you have connections or collaborations with local agencies that do international social work?

**Respondent:** It is a good question but I want to say I do not know the answer to that to be honest but the fact that I do not know the answer to that’s not a good sign. We have international non-profits organizations I am sure here in …… the caveat here is I am not sure if they are partnering with us. I know we have a Caribbean group that we have done events with so I know that. Our dean has been involved in the African community but officially I don’t think we have any field placements with them.
Conversely, one program has very extensive collaborations with other institutions in other parts of the world.

We have three different programs- Beijing, Italy, Mexico- different programs that we organize and also our students can organize field work experiences on their own so for instance we have a program or course in Beijing, couple of programs in Rome, one in Italy we have two courses in Mexico.

The participant further explained that courses are designed by their faculty members in other parts of the world and the faculties teach the courses. The excerpt below details it.

**Researcher**: So it is actually not the study abroad per se its classes but you take them out of America?

**Respondent**: Right.

**Researcher**: Different from the cultural immersion they get from the study abroad?

**Respondent**: I would like you to clarify what you mean by study abroad.

**Researcher**: Because like in your own case you are saying that they actually teach them because for most of the study abroad they just go there for cultural immersion not like formal classes taught.

**Respondent**: The only distinction here is that our professors go abroad and they teach the students the courses except in two situations. One is in Calabria we have a new collaboration and the professors at the University Calabria will be teaching our students a comparative course on family assessment in the U.S. and Europe. A family child course from the USA perspective and the other one is a field placement course in Mexico where they will actually be going there for about six weeks.

In a similar vein, on the importance of getting an effective collaboration

Faulty at University 10 explained that

So naturally it’s a rewarding experience, what I do in this triangle if a school partners with us then I will offer reciprocity as well because I always have this problem with American schools, American students having a lot of money going abroad using up resources and then coming back home wow what a great experience I had. So reciprocity is going to work for me. If they take my students and they house them and they offer local transportation to get to their agency and they find them the place within our system then I will do the opposite in return. So if their students will find their way here buy airfare I will house them in ......, I will provide local transportation and I will help them find agencies. So we have had students from Mexico, we have had students from Germany, we
have had students from Spain, we have had students from Kenya and for me this makes a richer classroom because my masters students are sitting with a woman who said you know I left my country because of Female Genital Mutilation, my parents did want this to happen you know I got out of Kenya, I am here I am not so sure I am going back but I am getting my MSW. My students will like, oh my gush this is real. So it makes for such a richer classroom environment but remember now go back to the resource question if they take my students and house them in Kenya, I will take their students and house them here. Is it going to cost me more money here in ........ than in Kenya but to me this is the way the relationship should work besides trading students back and front, we will trade faculty as well.

Another dean noted that they have been able to assist some universities in Africa to establish social work departments that prepare students at the masters and doctoral levels.

While we certainly welcome international students into our program we don’t do international marketing or seek students internationally. However, because we help established create the MSW and the PhD programs at the University of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, we have had several Ethiopian students attend our programs here as well as we currently have some from Tanzania who also became aware of us through our involvement in Tanzania with faculties in Tanzania.

4.3.5 Textbooks for International Social Work

The Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) maintains a website that has resources (list of books) pertinent to international social work. Although there has been an increased number of books published in the last two decades there is yet to be an instructional text that will chronicle the very important topics that students need to know. International social work topics are vast encompassing gender issues, global poverty, international human rights and justice, terrorism, child trafficking, child abuse and child endangerment, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), female genital mutilation (FGM), natural disasters as to name a few.
In designing curriculum/curricula for international social work at the bachelors, masters and doctorate levels, it will be fitting to have specific topics to cover at each of the levels, to ingrain into the students some topics at the introductory level, middle level, and advanced level. In many cases professors prescribe textbooks that do not cover all the foundational concepts in international social work. At present we are yet to get detailed theoretical underpinnings for students to cover viz: Modernization Theory, Development Theory, World Systems Theory, International Regimes Theories, Neo-Liberal theories/concepts and ideas, The World Bank, IMF, Structural Adjustment Policies, Social Development Theory, Colonialism, and Imperialism. All of these should be included in international social work textbooks. According to Dominelli and Bernard (2003) there is a vast gap between theoretical base and social practice.

Researcher: I have one more question. In terms of text books, are text books a problem for you like devising course materials if you were to infuse topics into the course that is being taught, infusing like international materials. How do text books come in?

Respondent: You mean infusing international materials?

Researcher: Yes.

Respondent: It depends on the curriculum area you are talking about but I will say not well. That’s just my impression. Definitely in our in practice we are not infusing international practice issues. I think it needs to be pushed on to if you have it in a course in international social work. Policy? Definitely not. Only in terms of the history of
policy that you might talk about, you know UK from the English Common Laws but that’s not what you are really talking about.

Some programs do their best to infuse international social work topics in their courses and this has benefited students considerably as the quotation below reveals.

Well if you look at texts alone, if you start looking at for example the journal that we started, we are beginning to use the products of that journal as articles to read for our class okay. But I think there is somewhat of an explosion in this area. When I first started doing a concentration in international community development in the year 2000, I found there were not that many text books and also by the way students were different too, this was what I found in 2000, students would say this is interesting, I have never really been abroad I think I would like to do this. Now by 2010 only ten years ago this is what I hear, well I was on a choir tour when I was in middle school in Rome, my parents went to Cambodia and I worked for a year as a volunteer in Guatemala of course I want to go overseas again. So today’s student in only ten years is very different than what I saw in 2000. Today’s American student has begun to have a global perspective. If you would have asked this question of me in 2000 I would have said my gush we are so far out of line we don’t understand the importance of language, we don’t understand other cultures but in ten years this generation of kids is different.

4.3.6 Tenure

Many professors find it difficult to design new courses as it moves them away from their areas of interest or populations of study and therein delay the tenure track. The issues of tenure linger in the minds of many professors and thereby work assiduously to publish in the areas that they are more comfortable with. International social work is still very new in comparison with other areas and also local agencies and even the federal government have more funding and other grants available to professors who do research in such areas like child welfare, mental health and
gerontology. A dean opined the issue of tenure and how it makes it difficult to get faculty interested in a new area such as international social work.

The next challenge will be getting faculty committed who are to doing this. This is especially true at institutions like yours and mine that are research institutions. Most faculty are focused on their own individual research and not developing new programs so they don’t get much out of doing this for doing this to be honest. They will get more benefit from getting a huge grant than planning a new program. So getting faculty that will be willing to buy into this especially at the planning stage will be very difficult. I think we will get a whole group of students. It will be a challenge but I think it will be doable. The other two are much more difficult. Those are the challenges, then of course identifying the right partnerships, the right international partnerships, knowing how to do that and how to form those relationships because obviously you want the best experiences.

The issue of tenure was a disincentive to many faculties to do international social work education. In this excerpt below, the participant state that teaching international social work courses before now did not count as work load.

the way we started this is that faculty did the course work but they didn’t take work load for it because a lot of us were already doing it so it wasn’t important. We were just happy that oh my God the school wants us to do this so now we give faculty work load credit and if they do it above a certain level I pay them for that extra but not the full course load because it cost money. So we take the money out of our tuition, our budget because we are committed to this.

original area of interest, do international social work and remain on the tenure track.

This excerpt explains clearly the length at which this program goes to support and develop faculty.

Well I think initially training faculty, any place I have gone it maybe it’s my vision but sometimes American faculty don’t or have the same vision so it takes some teacher preparation to have them begin to include this material into their syllabi, to have them retrain themselves so that they take a global perspective, to realize that this is, if it is going to
really work it’s not going to be capped on the end like week fourteen we will talk about international, no. It has to be woven like a tapestry through the entire class so that faculty development was what I found I needed to do once again when I arrived in 2004. Then one has to work with the agency infrastructures within the community and then develop the field placement sites and relationships abroad. I think logistically there is a money commitment that needs to be made because if I am going to have an international program, my faculty has to be presenting. Example of that in January, the first of the year one, two, three, four, five, six faculty will be doing different papers at the International Consortium on Social Development in Dhaka, Bangladesh. Well I am paying their airfare to go there. So as dean of any program needs to realize there will be financial commitments that are involved in order to sustain the program. Now my work with these international organizations and I have always tried to create a triangle so there is our school at one point, there is the agency abroad in Ethiopia or wherever it is. The other point to the triangle is another school of social work. And I don’t care if it is a brand new school because we can begin to partner and I can help them and they can help us but this triangular situation is the best for us to work in. It also adds another level of supervision between the schools and where the students are in Addis are either a government agency or NGO or Faith Based organization in the country.

4.3.7 Curriculum Development and Design

Professors play a pivotal role in teaching students at the university but throughout the individual interviews, they expressed the lack of a mandatory curriculum design from the Council on Social Work Education on international social work. Respondents expressed their different views about their international social work curriculum:

The only distinction here is that our professors go abroad and they teach the students the courses except in two situations. One is in Calabria we have a new collaboration and the professors at the University Calabria will be teaching our students a comparative course on family Assessment in the US and Europe. A family child course from the USA perspective and the other one is a field placement course in Mexico where they will actually be going there for about six weeks.

At this time our full time faculties just teach core courses they don’t teach electives that is our mission now. We have 500 students in our
core school so we have to offer multiple sections of core courses. We do create a global awareness we closely with the International Association of Social Work Schools. We try to develop a social work month, one segment of the social work month we do international social work. But it all narrows down to limited resources and limited needs; money, money, money is the main factor. There are faculties who are more than interested in doing this international social work. We had an exchange with Germany. Social work students used to come here and then our students used to go there.

The quotation above shows that designing a new course somehow hinges on the availability of funds and that owing to the lack of money the program is not able to create courses in international social work that could lead to a concentration.

No it is interesting that’s why I put it to the course because we don’t. You will notice that in our mission statement of the school we talk about national and international practices, we don’t call it per se international social work. I assume that our mission is consistent with the understanding of international social work without defining it. But if you look at the first part of the mission it talks about working with individuals and groups and communities etc., etc. all over the world around justice issues and empowerment that kind of things. So maybe that’s another way of defining it, I don’t know by our mission, we do have a vision statement which I think builds on that and that’s why on our website we have as I said this course. We have been trying to have to have a certificate in international social work the objective should be another way of defining it but we haven’t gotten there yet. Sub-specialization if you would, maybe not a certificate not really. In the state of ……, in education it’s far better not to have a certificate but to have a sub-specialization so that the program can transfer so we are thinking about that. And then we have a certificate in international global policy and our students that I am the person in charge of that. We have about 7 to 11 students a year who get that certificate so they take the international social work course and then they take several other courses either health policy, mental health policy and then the other global health course.

In the department we have one course and it is a course that is offered actually across the university to both graduate and undergraduate students and the course is called global studies but it is a trip to Jamaica. It is a trip to orphanages in Jamaica and students meet and study online about the country, and about the cultural context in which
they are going to work and they travel with one of our faculty members to Jamaica and work in two orphanages in the country for one week and then return. They give a presentation to the campus about their findings and then meet and reflect on those activities as well. We do it once a year.

Here the time frame for students to be out there in another country is one week and for this program they see this as doing some international social work. One can describe this as a site seeing trip or a visitation to an orphanage in Jamaica as the students will learn very little just by staying out there for a week.

I don’t see a concentration here. I really don’t. I think that it will be integrated into what we do as a school connected with our urban mission. I think we are already looking into urban issues internationally. We are constantly looking into ways to broaden our urban mission looking at ways to serve the urban population so I think within that context we can strengthen that. We have one course in international social work and we can expand it but not create a new course but offering it more frequently. Right now we are offering it once a year but maybe looking at offering it more than once a year. We have also talked about study abroad programs looking at our students’ interests. I think the reason why we don’t have one for now is the nature of our student body to be very honest with you. We have a lot of non-traditional students who are craze bound to this metropolitan area. We don’t have a lot of out-of-state students and most of our students are part-time. We have almost an equal number of part-time students so that presents a different kind of student population in terms of area of interest and the ability to do certain kinds of international activities like study abroad programs. But in spite of that I think there is a bunch of them interested. I think in the past I was sitting on the board for a program called the Bridging Program where ….. students from the University of ……. took our policy courses and we took their policy course as well. So those kinds of relationships we can still use and in terms of study abroad programs is something under consideration.

Of all the institutions interviewed, only one of them has a concentration in international social work. This program has very detailed pre-departure preparations that include language requirements, taking some elective classes and other trainings.
before they depart. The students are trained on cultural awareness issues and this
gives them an insight into what to expect once they travel.

Yes it is our singular concentration. We are one of the few masters programs in the United States that has a concentration that is globally focused and family centered. I brought this as a perspective when I became dean here in 2004. What that means for us is that in the foundation year global material is infused throughout the entire curriculum exemplary readings from journals that won’t be traditionally used are used. Foreign journals are used as supportive documents. About three years ago we implemented a completely online direct access journal called the journal of Global social work practice. It is a referee journal that is now ready to offer its fifth issue. It has manuscripts submitted from around the world and it is dedicated specifically to the practice of social work internationally.

Some of the participants expressed the difficulty in getting a concentration in international social work. An associate dean expressed his views on the situation in their program.

Researcher: So in that case what will be your dream curriculum?

Respondent: For international social work?

Researcher: Yes if you were to do a concentration.

Respondent: We don’t think we have the full resources to do a full concentration. It would be nice to have a concentration in international social work but I am not sure exactly what that would look like. For us what we are thinking right now is if we can develop a course that will cut across both BSW and MSW still a quota dedicated to both students that’s sort of a general international social work course.

Another associate dean gave a grim picture of the situation and ruled out any future possibility of a concentration in international social work. “I don’t see a concentration here. I really don’t. I think it will be integrated into what we do as a school connected with our urban mission. I think we are already looking into urban
issues internationally” (University 4). For some of the programs offering a course in international social work was seen as being on the right track,

we have one course in international social work and we can expand it but not create a new course but offering it more frequently. Right now we are offering it once a year but maybe looking at offering it more than once a year (Associate Dean University 4).

The interviews revealed the themes discussed above Definition of International Social Work, Funding, Collaboration, Study Abroad and International Field Placements, Textbooks for International Social Work, Tenure and Curriculum Development. These themes portray the extent to which programs prepare students for international social work concentration. In keeping with the 2008 EPAS, participants serve the profession through their teachings and scholarship and the integration of the explicit and implicit curricular thereby preparing students for professional practice.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL WORK

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss the study findings and the implications for social work. The purpose of this study was to explore the state of international social curriculum in some accredited CSWE institutions in Mid-Western USA that prepare students for the master’s degree in social work. This study addresses the gap in international social work literature, education and practice. Forms of qualitative research have been done in the past by interviewing professors or administrators on the phone or the “simple counting of the number of programs that include some international content and proceed to analysis of how it is included” (Healy, 1999, p. 23). This study is different as it entails the interviewing of professors or individuals who are directly in charge of international social work programs as research participants. In many cases it was extremely difficult to get hold of research participants as they were busy. The researcher made several follow up calls and sent out emails in a bid to secure interviews and eventually appointments were set up. Once the participants agreed to the interviews the researcher travelled to their locations for the interview. If the research was conducted by telephone interviews or review of programs documents much of the findings here could not have come to the fore.
I chose grounded theory approach because virtually no dissertation topic has dealt with my topic of interest; the status of international social work in accredited CSWE institutions that prepare students for the master’s degree level. Grounded theory culminates into theory construction that is grounded in the data collected and analyzed. Thus a major hallmark or cornerstone of grounded theory is the constant comparative process of data with data, as advanced by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994, 1998) According to Walker and Myrick (2006) Strauss and Corbin articulate “some of the natural cognitive processes we use when we compare things” (p. 553). Thus the comparative analysis paves way for categories stemming from the codes. In this study no theory has been developed but themes have been identified and conceptualized as proposed by Corbin and Strauss (2008).

5.2 Limitations of the Study

Like any other qualitative research, this research methodology has some limitations. According to (Prather 2010, p. 11) “qualitative research methods do not require the random selection of informants.” This therefore implies that there is bound to be the risk of social bias with the findings. In this research, only 14 institutions in Mid-Western United States were selected as participants out of the 209 accredited institutions in the country as of the 2011/ 2012 academic year. In this vein, one major limitation will be the lack of generalizability although more general inferences would be drawn from the data (Patton, 2002). Qualitative researchers typically do not make external statistical generalizations because their goal usually is not to make inferences about the underlying population, but to attempt to obtain insights into particular educational, social, and familial processes and practices that
exist within a specific location and context (Connolly, 1998; Patton, 2002). As Marshall & Rossman (1999) note, “no proposed research project is without limitations; there is no such thing as a perfect designed study” (p. 42). Remarkably, although qualitative studies are not generalizable to the population in terms of statistical terms, their findings may be transferable to other accredited CSWE institutions in other parts of the country that prepare students at the masters level. Generally speaking, the research may seem to lack the representativeness especially when you take into consideration the total number of accredited CSWE institutions that prepare students for the master’s degree. This is indeed a limitation the researcher has no control over. Besides, many states in the Mid-West are not seen as the most international or diverse cities like New York, Washington DC and Los Angeles. Although the institutions in the mid-west were sought to participate in the study, their response rates were low and some participants contacted out rightly refused to be interviewed as they conjectured that this was a kind of evaluation of their programs.

Another limitation of this study is the non-involvement of students in the study as research participants especially students who have completed study abroad trips or international field placements. Their involvement could have been very useful as they could provide an insight into the experiences of students, something like an exit survey.

The researcher is the primary instrument in this research. Therefore the researchers should take into cognizance their biases (Merrian, 1998). With my vast international experiences, having lived in Hamilton, New Zealand from 1999 to 2001 to pursue graduate study at the University of Waikato and my extensive travels to
many countries like the United Kingdom, Belgium, Norway, and Canada and being born and raised in Sierra Leone in Africa there was the ardent desire to see topics of international nature introduced into the curriculum at the graduate level as I pursued my MSW and PhD degrees but this in no way creeps into the analysis of the research findings and analysis.

Finally another limitation of this study is financial constrains as the researcher covered all the travel costs and hotels cost to conduct face-to-face interviews at the different locations of the participants and maybe with adequate funding more interviews could have been conducted.

The results of this study would help social work educators as they bring to the fore pertinent issues about international social work. As data was collected for this study, seven major themes emerged from participants responses viz, Definition of International Social Work, Funding, Collaboration, International Placement and Study Abroad, Textbooks for International Social Work, Curriculum Development and Tenure. This section will discuss how the three research questions were answered in relation to the themes postulated. Thus the findings are connected with my research questions.

5.3 Research Questions

In the course of the interviews and analysis of the data from the interviews the research questions were answered and this section discusses how each of the research questions was answered in relation to the themes.
5.3.1 *Research Question One*

How do accredited CSWE institutions selected for this study provide educational experiences to prepare their students for skills and knowledge in international social work?

This question is designed to bring out answers from the social work educators as they train students for professional international social work practice. In order to explore what students learn from accredited institutions as they seek to concentrate in the area of international social work. In this case, participants offered their thoughts on how they prepare students for professional practice with a view of both the explicit and implicit curriculum.

In keeping with the CSWE accreditation standards, participants explained how they provide both the explicit and implicit curriculum to students. Nearly all the participants discussed the importance of international social work and explained the steps taken to teach students and provide them with the requisite experiences needed to become international social workers or do international social practice within their localities. Nearly all the accredited institutions in this study have study abroad programs and this is used to a certain extent to expose students to other cultures in other countries. Some of the institutions in this study have international field placements where in students spend over six weeks overseas or stay here in the United States and do their practicum at agencies that do international social work.

With the exception one program that has international social work as its singular concentration, all the other participants expressed the difficulty in establishing a concentration in the area of international social work. Thus students
will find it difficult the take the requisite number of classes for a concentration in the area of international social work and hence follow the general trend by specializing in populations within the local practice arena.

5.3.2 Research Question Two

What are the challenges encountered by participating accredited CSWE institutions when providing international social work education to their students?

Historically, accredited CSWE institutions have presented valuable opportunistic environment for students to acquire knowledge and professional practice. Thus participants in this study expressed some of the things they have done in preparing students and some of these are discussed below, curriculum development, prescribing useful textbooks, and they also discuss some of the challenges that they usually encounter in terms of funding and acquiring tenure status.

Curriculum Development

In the area of collaboration pertinent to curriculum development, participants discussed the absence of it with their colleagues either in the same state or the same geographical entity and how it was detrimental to the development of the programs or new areas of concentration. By collaborating with other institutions locally or internationally participants noted that students will benefit tremendously and they too will build on such relationships to advance their skills.

Collaborations with programs in other parts of the world were not egalitarian in nature as many participants are yet to get their programs to devise effective ways to get students from the developing world to come to the US to get similar experiences. Collaboration among deans of schools of social work has been very minimal when it
comes to curriculum design, advancement of teaching or securing funding. With the mercantile nature of schools of social work these days and especially in a bid to survive and be more competitive, many schools continue to work alone with the determination of being ranked top or prestigiously in the top cadre of academic excellence and beef up their student population therefore find it difficult to collaborate with a competitor.

*Study Abroad and International Field Placements*

Although the importance of international field placement was mentioned by the participants especially as it makes students garner practice experience in the area of international social work, there remains the lack of a detailed time frame by each of the programs in meeting the required 900 hours stipulated by CSWE for MSW students to complete as field placement hours. The length of period of study abroad varies considerably as a participant explained that students in their program only spend a week overseas. One week is very short for students to learn about other cultures and such an experience is more of tourism than that of an educational experience that could be worthwhile.

*Textbooks*

In the interviews 13 out of the 14 participants explained that international topics are infused in the syllabus, some participants explained that they use articles that dwell on international issues and some use some of the few popular books like Healy, L.M. (2008). *International social work: Professional action in an independent world*. New York: Oxford University Press and Mapp, S. C. (2008). *Human rights*

Tenure

Some participants explained that they provide the necessary support for new faculty who may be interested in international social work the necessary support needed to do the work. According to one participant doing international field placement to taking students on a study abroad trip was labor intensive, so another faculty is paid to accompany large number of students. Some participants explained that teaching international social work is considered as a teaching load so that faculty on tenure track can get credit for it.

Nearly all the participants believe that the issue of tenure was a disincentive for faculty to branch off to new areas like international social work. In some of the programs teaching an elective course on international social work was not deemed as part of the teaching load so faculty in many cases teach these courses stemming from their own personal volition of things and not been mandated by the administration to infuse international social work content.

Funding

One participant revealed that being that international social work is their singular concentration they provide support for faculty and students to travel overseas. They provide funds for a considerable part of students’ trips overseas from grants they receive from both local and international agencies.

Nearly all the other participants in this study discussed the issue of funding for international social work. They expressed the lack of funds inhibits international
social work concentration greatly. Generally international field placements are expensive in terms of pre-departure preparations and other associated costs once the professors and students travel to another country. At these institutions a concentration in the area of international social work was not seen as a priority.

5.3.3 Research Question Three

How do social work professors and administrators who participate in this study conceptualize international social work?

Here the participants bring to the fore their conceptualization of the terminology international social work and how they go about designing the curriculum for the concentration in the area.

Definition of International Social Work

The interviews revealed that there are varied definitions as to the meaning of international social work. The participants gave different definitions and none of the participants gave a definition in terms of international social work from their program’s documents. Participants devised definitions as they deem fit that would encompass the many issues international social work or global social work deals with. The participants’ perceptions bring to the fore the problem of a concise problem of definition by the accrediting body CSWE and this also brings in the broad definitions by some authors of international social work as well (Dominelli, 2003, Cox & Pawar, 2006; Healy, 2001, 2008, 2012; Hugman, 2010). Some participants defined international social work as they deem it fit encompassing some of the key concepts of the profession, diversity and social justice. The participants believed that as part of the explicit curriculum they could infuse topics about international social work in a
bid to expose students or get students to learn about international social work and these are very important to social work values.

Curriculum Development

The idea of having a concentration remains in the shadow of established areas like mental health, child welfare and gerontology as to name a few. Nearly all of the participants spoke about infusing international social work topics so as to get students some knowledge about global issues. The problem here is that international social work topics are vast and some are new or are current and therefore needs to be addressed in the curriculum. The researcher figured a general consensus amongst the participants about the importance of international social work and expressed that the curriculum was a moving thing bound to innovations.

Field Practicum

Some participants stressed on the importance of doing international field placement as field education is of primordial importance to students. Participants had divergent views about the length of study abroad duration and also the length of international field placement. All participants believe that students will benefit tremendously from study abroad programs and international field placements in particular as it will allow them to experience other cultures and reduce their ethnocentrism about things. Their perception somehow reflects the work by Lough (2009, p. 468)

Through these placements, students may gain a greater awareness of global poverty, formulate realistic intervention strategies, recognize their role as global participants, and strengthen their commitment to
social justice. The ability of students to gain these insights, however, is contingent on appropriate curriculum, support, and supervision. When institutional support is not provided, international placements may increase students’ ethnocentricity.

Indeed some participants did mention the essence of good student preparation for international field placements so that students can benefit tremendously from the whole exercise. Zunz and Oil (2009, p. 132) state “communication and language skills must be addressed comprehensively as they are so central to social work practice; this means that faculty members must be aware of the many components of these skills.” Professors need to be aware of problems related to transportation in host countries, cross-cultural issues and language barriers especially travelling to non-English speaking communities furthermore professor or field direction need to take cognizance of the health related issues and make sure that students have the necessary vaccination and also proper contacts of hospitals or clinics that provide service and also that the student have the necessary health and travelling insurances.

Attempts to offer conceptualizations of international social work have been overshadowed by the easy access to funding when professors deal with mental health clients, gerontology especially with the baby booming trend and other areas like child welfare or more specifically the dichotomous arena of local practice and global (international) practice.

Textbooks

The use of textbooks plays pivotal part in the teaching of students at the MSW level. At the MSW level books by Rubin and Barbie are used by many schools and

Publications on international social work reveal that there is no standardized definition of international social work. But the different definitions faculties have get them along. Just as Midgley (2010, p.10) writes about social development theory, international social work has been “infused with rhetorical and hortatory claims that were in themselves inspiring but lacked clear practical prescription.” Therefore many programs see a study abroad trip, few topics infused as doing international social work. International social work topics or areas of interest are vast, as such the CSWE needs to design or outline areas to cover and also which ones should be core courses and electives as well. There are many areas to cover some of which are as follows:

Thus with all the flurry or one can say an array of academic activities, the literature on international social work has not been burgeoning as it still scampers along nearly all the other areas of social work practice.

Field Practicum

The current field placement stipulates 900 hours of field practicum for MSW students. The arena of field practice in social work is vast and this lends it to face many problems of coordination. Students of other professions like medicine, teaching, law and clergy practice in restrictive settings. Medical students in hospitals, law students in courts or chambers, students on teaching practice in classrooms and theology students in churches. In many locations, it continues to be difficult to find local agencies that serve international populations or do international social work practice. Besides, international aid agencies and other international non-governmental agencies do not have local offices in many cities in the mid-west.

5.4 Implications for Social Work Education, Policy and Research

5.4.1 Social Work Education

Based on the findings of the study, about explicit and implicit curriculum participants expressed that meeting required number of hours for field education in relation to international field placement was difficult as it is very expensive for students to stay overseas for long. CSWE needs to outline field practicum requirements that could entail different practicum hours for international social work concentration students so in the case students travel overseas they will not spend
considerable time doing placement which could be very expensive. Programs could design international field placements that require less hours; maybe a quarter of the 900 hours: 225 hours- 6 weeks and maybe do away with the field liaison from the accredited institutions as travelling to and from placement sites will be very expensive.

Social work education must pay close attention to the inclusion of international social work concentration as this will encourage students from diverse backgrounds to concentrate in the area. Thus these programs will then address the issues of globalization and other international topics such as poverty, the Millennium Development Goals; human trafficking across the world where social work graduates can practice professionally.

5.4.2 Research

The results from this study demonstrate significant areas of future research. More empirical-based research needs to be done especially looking at the impact of international field placement as field education is a major component of the social work curriculum. Research is needed to explore the views of students about what prevents them from taking a concentration in international social work or to conduct interviews with students who have had study abroad trips or those who completed international field placements. Further additional research is needed to explore the extent to which students learn when international social work issues are infused in their courses/syllabi or have concentrations in international social work. Themes identified in Chapter 4 based on the research findings should be analyzed comparatively to similar ones derived from other qualitative studies. More qualitative
studies on international social work is needed so that challenges accredited CSWE programs encounter in other parts of the country will be looked into. More scholarship is needed to explore ways in which accredited CSWE institutions can effectively evaluate the implicit curriculum as outlined in the 2008 EPAS.

5.4.3 Policy

The findings from this study have policy implications as well. As the American society continues to undergo major changes owing to immigration and the migration of people, there has been an increased need of social services as well. Therefore, policies relating to these individuals needs to change so as to adequately deal with these changing needs so as to make the environment a conducive place for all to live in.

There is a seeming disconnection between the CSWE requirements in the 2008 EPAS and the tenure track professors follow as such accredited institutions need to facilitate training for people who are interested in working in new areas such as international social work and military social work. Some of the research participants expressed the lack of funding as an inhibiting factor to organize study abroad trips, international field placements or establish a new concentration. In this vein, directing more funds to an area like international social work will provide the incentive to both students and professors interested in the international social work concentration.

The Council on Social Work Education in their next accreditation standards needs to look into international field placement issues. In the 2008 EPAS, under the explicit curriculum: Educational Policy 2.3 Signature Pedagogy: Field Education. The standard is broad and somehow makes it difficult for international field placement. It
is required that students complete 900 hours for master’s programs and that programs should “admit only those who have met program’s criteria for field education.” In this case programs may see it more expensive to keep their students overseas for long in a bid to get the required number of hours so a shortened number of hours for students in an international social work concentration would be awarded their degrees with lesser number of hours of field education.

CSWE has a prescribed evaluation method that schools use to measure their performance in terms of explicit curriculum but there is none for the implicit curriculum evaluation, therefore, CSWE should implement measuring determinants for the implicit curriculum as well.

Conclusion

As globalization lurks in people’s daily lives there have been considerable changes in the composition of populations social workers serve either locally or globally. Therefore social work education needs to prepare students to work in the changing world. Though personal biases are likely to set in for this research study, I was very open to the objective interpretations of things and what the research explored. The study themes brought to the fore namely Definition of International Social Work, Funding, Collaboration, International Placement and Study Abroad; Textbooks for International Social Work, Curriculum Development and Tenure have broadened my view about international social work. Notwithstanding this, additional research is needed to look into these issues at a national level so that the gap in literature will continue to be filled in. As for me this study is just the beginning of my research interest in international social work and qualitative research as a
methodology in doing research for social work education. As part of my professional journey, more research will be undertaken so that issues in the international arena are imparted to students.
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APPENDIX A: SOLICITATION LETTER
Whom It May Concern:

My name is Sylvester Amara Lamin: I am a doctoral candidate in the Ohio State University College of Social Work, Columbus, Ohio. In partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree Doctor of Philosophy, I am conducting for my dissertation under the direction of Professor Mo Yee Lee a study on the status of international social work in CSWE accredited institutions in the Mid-West that prepare students for the MSW degree. The intent of the research is to examine what courses are taught to students that could make them concentrate in international social work. The interview questions focus on the status of international social work at present and future strategic plans.

Your participation requires approximately 45 minutes to sixty minutes interview session although it may transcend this based on the details you may wish to provide. At the end of the interview if there are clarifications to make I will do so by making telephone calls.
If you are willing to participate in the interview, please contact me at 614-218-3282 weekdays between the hours of 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m. or 614-459-8685, evenings and weekends. Or, you may contact Dr. Mo Yee Lee at 614-292-9910.

Sincerely,

Sylvester Amara Lamin
APPENDIX B: PERMISSION LETTER TO BE ON CAMPUS
To Whom It May Concern

Permission to conduct research on your campus

My name is Sylvester Amara Lamin: I am a doctoral candidate in the Ohio State University College of Social Work, Columbus, Ohio. In partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree Doctor of Philosophy, I am conducting for my dissertation under the direction of Professor Mo Yee Lee a study on the status of international social work in CSWE accredited institutions in the Mid-Western USA that prepare students for the MSW degree. The intent of the research is to examine what courses are taught to students that could make them concentrate in international social work.

In this vein, I seek you permission to conduct research on your campus so as to interview the participant for the study. Participants have been identified as faculty who teach classes in international social work or are responsible for the international social work curriculum. Their participation in this study is strictly voluntary. I will only be on the campus for the day of the research.
The knowledge that would be gained from this research would be valuable to the social work program in your institution especially the international social work curriculum.

Thanking you in advance as I look forward to hearing from you. Please contact me at 614218-3282 weekdays between the hours of 8:00 a.m. and 4:30 p.m. or at my E-mail amaralamin10@yahoo.com or you may contact my advisor Dr. Mo Yee Lee at 614-292-9910 or at her E-mail lee.355@osu.edu.

Sincerely,

Sylvester Amara Lamin
APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
1 How does your faculty/school; define international social work?
2 Does your school define international social work in your document?
3 What are your thoughts on the importance of international social work for students?
4 Do you offer courses in international social work?
   A: If yes? Describe your courses/curriculum.
   B: If no? Do you have any plans devising courses or the curriculum?
5 What are the strengths of your faculty if you were to design courses for in international social work?
6 How do you think an expansion of the program would fit into the diversity goals of your College/School?
7 What ways do you have in getting your students prepared for working with/approaching international social problems?
8 What will be your dream curriculum for international social work?
9 What will be your challenges?
10 What collaborations do your school/college has with international agencies or institutions overseas?
1 How does your faculty/school; define international social work?

2 Does your school/department define international social work in your document?

3 What are your thoughts on the importance of international social work for students?

4 Do you offer courses in international social work?
   A: If yes? Describe your courses/curriculum.
   B: If no? Do you have any plans devising courses or the curriculum?

5 What are the strengths of your faculty if you were to design courses in international social work?

6 How do you think an expansion of the program would fit into the diversity goals of your College/School or department?

7 What ways do you have in getting your students prepared for working with/approaching international social problems?

8 What will be your dream curriculum for international social work?

9 What will be your challenges?

10 What collaborations do your college/school/department has with international agencies or institutions overseas.

11 In terms of textbooks, do you have contemporary textbooks that deal with international social work?
The Ohio State University Consent to Participate in Research

Study Title: International Social Work: A Situational Analysis of Accredited CSWE Institutions in Mid-Western USA.

Researcher: Sylvester Amara Lamin

Sponsor: Not Applicable

This is a consent form for research participation. You are invited to participate in this research study: International Social Work: A Situational Analysis of Accredited CSWE Institutions in Mid-Western USA. This is a request of consent for your research participation. This information that I am about to share with you contains important information about this study and what to expect if you decide to participate.

Your participation is voluntary.

Please consider the information carefully. Feel free to ask questions before making your decision whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form and will receive a copy of the form.

Purpose:
The Purpose of this study is to investigate the status of international social work courses at the MSW level in CSWE accredited departments, schools/colleges of social work in Mid-Western USA that could lead students to concentrate in the area of international social work upon completion of their studies. It is hoped that the findings of this research will increase the importance international social work in this global age.

Procedures/Tasks:
The study is performed as a fulfillment of the requirements for my Ph.D. degree in social work at the Ohio State University. If you agree to participate in this study we would schedule a time and date that suits you for an interview. The interview will last approximately between 45 minutes to an hour. If I have additional questions or clarifications to make after the initial interview, I will make follow-up contact for clarification and the possibility for multiple interviews. With your consent, the interviews will be audio-recorded, but only I will have access to the tapes. The recordings will be subsequently transcribed. Whatever you say will be confidential. At every stage of the research all efforts will be made to maintain confidentiality.

**Duration:**

You may leave the study at any time. If you decide to stop participating in the study, there will be no penalty to you, and you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision will not affect your future relationship with The Ohio State University.

**Risks and Benefits:** There are no anticipated risks, undue stress, or discomfort to you as a participant and there will also be no compensation or any direct benefit to you.

**Confidentiality:**

Efforts will be made to keep your study-related information confidential. However, there may be circumstances where this information must be released. For example, personal information regarding your participation in this study may be disclosed if required by state law. Also, your records may be reviewed by the following groups (as applicable to the research):

- Office for Human Research Protections or other federal, state, or international regulatory agencies;
- The Ohio State University Institutional Review Board or Office of Responsible Research Practices;
• The sponsor, if any, or agency (including the Food and Drug Administration for FDA-regulated research) supporting the study.

Incentives: No incentives will be provided for your participation in this research study. However your participation will be of primordial importance to the inclusion of international social work in the social work curricular at the MSW level.

Participant Rights:

You may refuse to participate in this study without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you are a student or employee at Ohio State, your decision will not affect your grades or employment status.

If you choose to participate in the study, you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits. By signing this form, you do not give up any personal legal rights you may have as a participant in this study.

Contacts and Questions:
For questions, concerns, or complaints about the study you may contact Dr. Mo Yee Lee at 614-292-9910 and or at lee.355@osu.edu. You may also contact Sylvester Amara Lamin at 614-218-3282 and/or at amaralamin10@yahoo.com.

For questions about your rights as a participant in this study or to discuss other study-related concerns or complaints with someone who is not part of the research team, you may contact Ms. Sandra Meadows in the Office of Responsible Research Practices at 1-800-678-6251.

If you are injured as a result of participating in this study or for questions about a study-related injury, you may contact Mo Yee Lee at 614-292-9910.

Signing the consent form
I have read (or someone has read to me) this form and I am aware that I am being asked to participate in a research study. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have had them answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

I am not giving up any legal rights by signing this form. I will be given a copy of this form.

Printed name of subject

Signature of subject

AM/PM

Date and time

Printed name of person authorized to consent for subject (when applicable)

Signature of person authorized to consent for subject (when applicable)

AM/PM

Relationship to the subject

Date and time

Investigator/Research Staff

I have explained the research to the participant or his/her representative before requesting the signature(s) above. There are no blanks in this document. A copy of this form has been given to the participant or his/her representative.

Printed name of person obtaining consent

Signature of person obtaining consent

AM/PM

Date and time
APPENDIX F: LIST OF OPEN CODES
List of Open Codes

Global Social Work
Study Abroad
International Social Work
Curriculum Design
Collaboration
Parents
Students
Mature Students
Rural Area
Rural Social Work
Language Skills
International Placement
Field Placement
Infuse
Articles
Poverty
Women's Issue
Demonstration
Third World Countries
Tenure
Field Supervisor
Agency
Attention
Overseas
Mission Statement
Aptitude Test
International Travel
Passport
CSWE
Accreditation
No Standardized Definition
Lack of Collaboration
International partners
Faculty Collaboration
Comparative Perspective of Social Work
Agreement
International Practicum
International Social Development
Experiential Learning
Service Learning
International Experience
International Communities
Encouraging International Efforts
International Research
Diversity Issues
Faculty that Bring International Perspective
Social Justice
Undergraduate International Perspective
Reaching Out Internationally
Offer Education to local residents
International Concentration
Modules
Incorporate into Existing Courses
International Education
Speak Their Language
Fear of Concentration
Enrich The Curriculum
International Organization
Placement Hours
Field Liaison
Have Broader Perceptions
Changing Global Environment
Affiliation
Research Collaborations
Faculty Becoming Curious
Money Issues
Grants
Lack of Accommodation
Health Insurance
Non-Governmental Organizations
Work With American Indians
Global Diversity of Our Faculty
Collaborations With International Partners
Do Voluntary Work
Tenure worries
Promotion
Recruitment Document
Make Sure Students Aware
Depend on Who
Diverse Faculty
Interest in Globalization
International Reference
Global Initiative
Change in Perspective
Students From Other Countries
Individualized Perspectives
Culturally Congruent Alternative
Political and Social Context
Scholarship To Demonstrate Belief
Design Program
Global Social Welfare
Faculty Strengths
Length of Time
Vacation
Tourism
Agencies Joint Effort
Tangential Source of Funding
The Ford Foundation
United Nations
Global South
Global North
Auxiliary Program
Requirements
Speak Like An American
USAID
Working With Students Overseas
Professional Social Worker
Bilingual
International Opportunities
Global Practice Concentration
World Health Organization
Centers for Diseases Control
From Corporations
Write Grants
Letters of Recommendation
The Books That I Use
Much Richer Texts
Culture Bound Discipline
Cheap Lodging
Everyone is Busy
Curriculum Development
Out of My Pocket
My Discretionary Account
Global Focus
Immigrants/ Refugee Agency
Peace Corps
Global Social Work Nationally
Six Days A Week
Write A Paper
Faculty Oppose
Faculty Not Convinced
Willing To Do Otherwise
Traditional
Literature
Unsupported Pioneers
Money Issues
Teach Students
Don't Want To Branch Off
Funding From My Institution
Why Should They Be Funded
Financial Aid
Family Support
Support
Conflict
Insecurity
Uncertainty
Technology
International Social Work
Terminologies
Social Media
Publish Or Perish
Peer Review Journal
Opportunities For Advancement
Funding Sources Evaporated
Proficiency in British English
First World
Developed World
Developing World
Lessons From Abroad
Microenterprise
Community Development
Capacity Building
Trickle Down Effect
Student Advisement
Course load
Teaching Load
Human Rights Issues
Matriculation
Female Genital Mutilation
Millennium Development Goals
Field Placement Hours
Theoretical Underpinnings
Course Work
Accreditation
Re-accreditation
Providing Societal Needs New Immigrants
Locale
Explicit Curriculum
Implicit Curriculum
Counseling
New Immigrants
Policy
State Actors
Multinational Corporations
Apprehension
Planning
Electives
Full Time Students
Part-Time Students
Individual Interaction
Current International Events
Baseline Approach
Attend United Nations Day
CSWE Conference
Codes of Ethics
Mature Students
EPAS
Academic Excellence
Professional Practice

Economic Justice
Consequence of Difference
Processes of Engagement
Evaluate With Individuals
Respond Proactively
Changes in Service Delivery
Sustainable Changes
Engagement
Assessment
Interventional
Generalist Practice
Advanced Practice
Signature Pedagogy
Selecting Field Placement
The Learning Environment
Faculty Size
Exchanges with External Constituencies
Institutional Priorities
Professionalization of Students
Field Director
Stable Financial Support
Core Competencies
NASW Code of Ethics
Scientific Inquiry
Oppression And Discrimination
Human Behavior
Social Environment
Promoting Sustainable Changes
Collaborate With Colleagues
Quality of Social Service
Emerging Social Trends
Funding Dilemma
Inadequate Funds
Lack of Funds
Sabbatical Leave
Associate Professor
Assistant Professor
Full Professor
Fulbright Scholar
Gender State and Public Policy
Rural Sociology
The American Way of Doing Things
Exposure to Different Perspectives
Enriching Understanding
Asylum
Family Ties
Emotional Affection
APPENDIX G: LIST OF AXIAL CODES
1. Definition of International Social Work:

- Global Social Work,
- International Social Work,
- Rural Social Work,
- International Social Development,
- Encouraging International Efforts,
- International Research,
- Faculty that Bring International Perspective,
- Reaching Out Internationally,
- International Concentration,
- International Education,
- International Organization,
- Interest in Globalization,
- International Opportunities,
- Global Focus,
- Global Social Work Nationally.

2. Funding:

- Grants, Money Issues,
- Tangential Source of Funding,
- Write Grants,
- Out of My Pocket,
- Funding From My Institution,
- Why Should They Be Funded,
- Financial Aid,
- Funding Sources Evaporated,
- Stable Financial Support,
- Funding Dilemma
- Inadequate Funds
- Lack of Funds
3. Study Abroad
   and Int. Placement
   Field Placement,
   Field Supervisor,
   Overseas,
   International Travel,
   Passport,
   Providing Society Needs for New Immigrants,
   New Immigrants,
   Full Time Students,
   Part Time Students,
   Individual Interactions,
   Mature Students,
   Selecting Field placement,
   Professionalization of Students,
   Field Director,
   Culturally Congruent Alternative,
   Work with Students Overseas,
   Culture Bound Discipline,
   Refugee Agency
   Peace Corps, Traditional,

4. Tenure
   Don’t Want to Branch Off,
   Insecurity,
   Student Advisement,
   Course Load
   Tenure Track
   Assistant Professor
   Associate Professor
   Full Professor
   Sabbatical Leave
5. Collaboration: Lack of Collaboration, Faculty Collaboration, Comparative Perspective of Social Work, Affiliation, Research Collaborations, Global Diversity of Our Faculty, Collaborations with International Partners, Recruitment Document, Diverse Faculty, Agencies Joint Effort,

6. Student Experiences
   Full Time Students
   Part-Time Students
   Serving on Committees
   Mature Students

7. Curriculum Development
   2008 EPAS
   Explicit Curriculum
   Implicit Curriculum

8. Textbooks
   More International Authors
   Infuse
   Peer Review Journal
   Concentration
   Current Issues
   Millennium Development Goals
   Human Rights
   CSWE
   NASW
Integrate